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ABSTRACT

This proceedings contains 23 papers in French and the following 45 papers in English: "Arthur Lismer" (Barer-Stein); "Bootstrapping and Shoestringing to Academic Respectability" (Baskett); "Teaching by Teleconference" (Boak, Kirby); "Doing What Is Possible" (Butterwick); "Connections between Individual and World Peace" (Fallis et al.); "Federal Legislation and Adult Education" (Chaytor, Berard); "Adult Student Attrition at Post-Secondary Institutions" (Cleveland); "On Adult Education in Academia" (Collard, Collins); "Native Indian Adults in a University Academic and Support Program" (Conchelos); "Computer-Mediated Communication in Distance Education" (Conrad, Archer); "Gender Discrimination in Community Development" (Cruikshank); "Telecommunications and the Adult Learner" (Dillon); "Reaching the Adult Learner through Television" (Dillon, Ryan); "Study of Alumni from Faculties of Education" (Draper); "Education and Politics" (Dykstra); "Job Search Experiences of Graduates Following the Basic Job Readiness Training Program" (Fallis); "Toward Conceptualizing the Field of Adult Education as a Discipline" (Gillen); "Delivering Postsecondary Distance Education via Communications Technologies" (Gunawardena); "Social Construction of Aging and Educational Provision for the Older Adult" (Harold); "Adult Transitions" (Helm, Patrick); "Qualitative Feedback in Distance Education" (Hotchkis, Nelson); "Social Impact of Ideas" (Hunt); "Graduate Distance Education" (Kirby, Garrison); "Lessons for Managers of Adult Literacy Learning" (Koop); "Psychological Field Differentiation in Teleconferencing" (Leclair); "Personal/Professional Politics in the Development of Adult Education Knowledge" (Long); "Issues in Management of Literacy Programs" (Lusthaus); "Learning in the Workplace for Unskilled Workers" (McEachern); "Teaching-Learning Experiences of Professional Career Changers in Higher Education" (Miller); "Radio and Adult Education" (Nwaerondu); "From Euphoria to Crisis" (Othick); "Addictions Training using Distance Education" (Radway); "Ethical Considerations in

Learning at a Distance" (Reed, Sork); "Prior Learning Assessment" (Sansregret); "Supervising and Mentoring" (Savitz); "Schon, Epistemology, and Professional Practice" (Selman); "Instructional Design Considerations in Telewriter Applications" (Shale, Garrison); "Industrial Studies for Trade Unionists" (Spencer); "Workplace Literacy Demands" (Taylor); "Bridging the Gap in Both Directions" (Thomas); "Painters as Predecessors" (Van Gent); "Women, Engineering, and Social Change" (Warren); "Staff Development Program in a Long Term Care Center" (Welsh); "Stimulating Learner Interaction at a Distance" (Wong); and "Facing up to Completion Rates in Distance Education" (Wong). (NLL)

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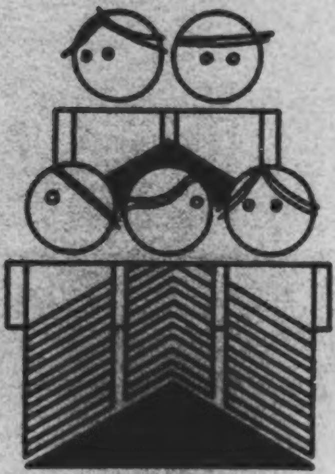
## CANADIAN ASSOCIATION FOR THE STUDY OF ADULT EDUCATION



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# L'ALPHABETISATION EN MILIEU DE TRAVAIL: LESSONS DES MOUVEMENTS NATIONAUX D'ALPHABETISATION.

Marie-Hélène Adrien, Université McGill.

Etude de la structure des mouvements nationaux d'alphabétisation et réflexions quant à l'applicabilité de certains éléments de ce modèle national dans les organisations nord-américaines désirant promouvoir l'alphabétisation parmi leurs employés.

Study of the structure of successful national literacy initiatives and issues raised for North American organizations promoting literacy among their employees

Le quart de la population adulte canadienne est fonctionnellement analphabète nous révèle le sondage Southam (Southam Report, 1987) et cette situation coûte près de deux milliards de dollars au gouvernement canadien (Canadian Business Task Force on Literacy, 1988). Soucieux d'accroitre leur productivité dans un marché de plus en plus compétitif, les administrateurs d'entreprise tentent de minimiser les impacts économiques et commerciaux de ce phénomène en promouvant l'alphabétisation au sein de leur organisation.

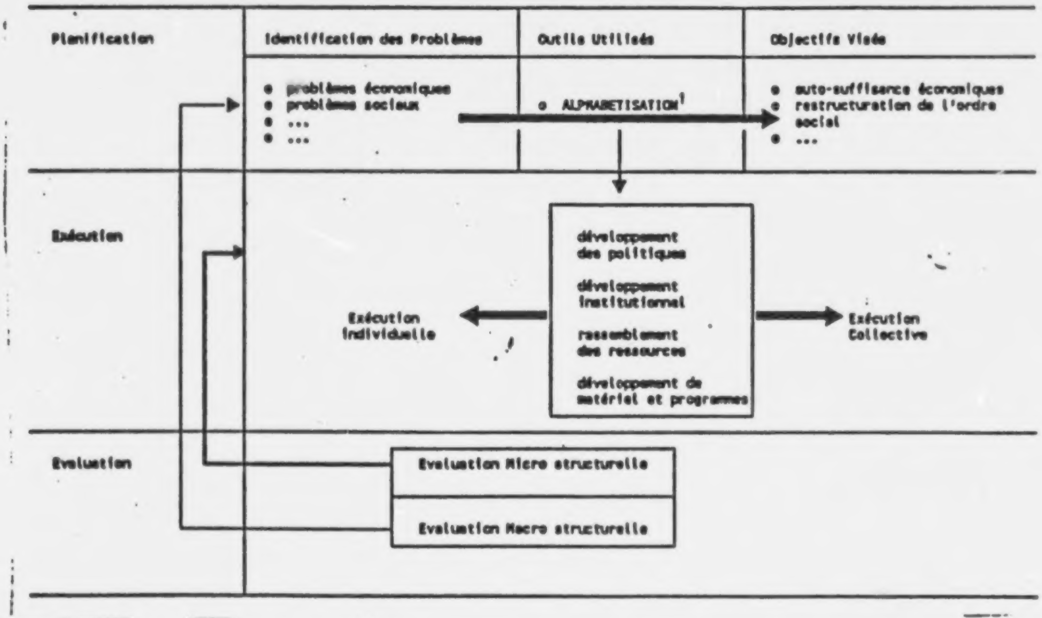
Au Canada, les recherches dans le domaine de l'alphabétisation en milieu de travail en sont au stade expérimental et le manque de recul permet encore peu de conclusions. Par contre, les mécanismes sous-tendant le succès des campagnes nationales d'alphabétisation sont plus clairement définis, qu'il s'agisse des campagnes russe et turque au début du siècle ou des plus récentes expériences dans les pays en voie de développement.

Ce travail suggère un modèle qui dégagerait les éléments essentiels et les étapes caractéristiques des mouvements nationaux d'alphabétisation. Nous proposerons ensuite quelques conclusions qui donneront matières à réflexion aux administrateurs d'entreprises lesquels, au sein de leur milieu de travail gèrent, après tout, le microcosme structurel et fonctionnel d'une nation.

## 1-Mécanismes favorisant le succès des mouvements nationaux d'alphabétisation: un modèle.

Malgré les injections financières et l'aide internationales, les tentatives d'alphabétisation nationale dans les pays du Tiers monde se soldent parfois par un échec (Carron G., Bordia, A.,1985). Par contraste, certaines nations réussirent à atténuer considérablement l'analphabétisme local en dépit des contraintes linguistiques, politiques et socio-économiques. L'analyse de ces réussites nationales met en évidence une taxonomie de facteurs nécessaires au succès d'une campagne d'alphabétisation, et ces facteurs composent le modèle représenté par le schéma 1.

Schéma 1: La Structure des campagnes nationales d'alphabétisation.


Planification
Identification des Problèmes
Outils Utilisés
Objectifs Visés
• problèmes économiques
• problèmes sociaux
• ...
• ...
o ALPHABETISATION[1]
• auto-suffisance économiques
• restructuration de l'ordre social
• ...
Exécution
développement des politiques
développement institutionnel
rassemblement des ressources
développement de matériel et programmes
Exécution individuelle
Exécution Collective
Evaluation
Evaluation Micro structurelle
Evaluation Macro structurelle

Notre modèle est issu de l'analyse de sept mouvements nationaux d'alphabétisation, en U.R.S.S, au Viet-nam, en Somalie, en Chine, à Cuba, en Tanzanie et au Brésil. Mises ensemble ces expériences nationales couvrent la presque totalité du vingtième siècle (Bhola, 1984) et visent des populations hétérogènes formées de un à soixante millions d'habitants (Simoni, 1977; Onushkin, 1982). De plus, ces campagnes qui durèrent entre dix mois et quinze ans furent parfois menées au sein d'une nation unilingue mais le plus souvent, l'alphabétisation se fit dans les dialectes régionaux (Freire, 1970; Simoni, 1977).

Comme pour bien de nouveaux programmes, les débuts des campagnes d'alphabétisation furent chaotiques et c'est en tâtonnant qu'elles définirent leur champ d'activités. En rétrospective il faut néanmoins admettre qu'en dépit du désordre initial, une même stratégie motrice animait ces campagnes, de sorte que la *planification du futur* fut liée à *l'exécution* et à *l'évaluation* des activités prévues.

La PLANIFICATION des campagnes comportait trois étapes soit, premièrement, *l'identification des problèmes* puis, *la définition des objectifs* et enfin, *le développement d'une stratégie reliant les problèmes aux objectifs.*

Le défi était de taille dans tous les cas, puisqu'il s'agissait de redresser l'injustice socio-économique du pays. Cependant, le bien-fondé de ce défi se justifia différemment dépendant des affiliations politiques du gouvernement en place. Ainsi, le Brésil et la Tanzanie firent miroiter au peuple la possibilité d'une auto-suffisance économique (Simoni, 1977). Quant à eux, les régimes plus fortement marxistes bâtirent leur propagande autour de la refonte sociale, qu'ils prévoyaient devoir accélérer le développement économique national. Le phénomène remarquable et proprement révolutionnaire demeure toutefois l'utilisation stratégique de l'alphabétisation pour sortir du sous-développement, de sorte que *l'alphabétisation devint le vecteur et non plus un secteur du développement.*

---

[1] L'alphabétisation n'est qu'UN des outils utilisés.

La planification à court terme des campagnes prévoyait la réalisation de projets concrets et généralement quantifiables, tels que le recrutement de jeunes tuteurs cubains (Bhola, 1984) ou le recenssement d'analphabètes soviétiques (Onushkin, 1982). A long terme ces projets devaient mener à l'édification d'une société plus homogène fondée, en partie, sur l'éducation continue de chacun.

**L'EXECUTION** du plan d'action devait *opérationaliser la stratégie planifiée et inciter le peuple à l'action.* Car il fallait modifier les comportements individuels et collectifs à l'égard de l'éducation et impliquer tout le peuple dans cette gigantesque entreprise nationale. La participation personnelle de chacun et de tous les groupes et structures du pays fut systématisée par la codification de la mission pédagogique dans tous les secteurs nationaux.

Ainsi, au niveau législatif les politiques nationales furent modifiées de manière à intégrer le rôle et les responsabilités de chaque secteur du gouvernement dans la campagne d'alphabétisation (Hamadache, 1987). Les nouvelles lois prévoyaient aussi un code de sanctions et de récompenses obligeant tous et chacun à relever le défi pédagogique par crainte, conviction ou ambition. Le développement institutionnel se poursuivait parallèlement afin que la campagne fusse sous la responsabilité d'organismes ou comités hybrides formés de représentants les cabinets ministériels et de tous les groupements populaires (Bhola, 1984). Cette intégration verticale et horizontale était doublement stratégique: elle démarquait l'alphabétisation de la tutelle du ministère de l'éducation[1] et elle atténuait le cliché qui reléguait les effets et la responsabilité de l'analphabétisme aux classes sociales traditionnellement dominées (Baba Moussa, 1981). Cette restructuration institutionnelle, qui symbolisait et soulignait les retombées de l'alphabétisation sur l'agriculture, l'hygiène, l'industrie ainsi que sur les autres secteurs de l'économie, favorisa le rassemblement des ressources humaines et matérielles. Le leader de la campagne qui, le plus souvent, symbolisait, au yeux du peuple, le renouveau national (Hamadache, 1987) popularisait l'implication individuelle ou collective à l'aide d'une publicité ranimant la fierté nationale et adaptée aux systèmes de communications locaux (Bhola, 1983). Enfin, le matériel didactique fonctionnel et les programmes et le système scolaire furent adaptés au stade de développement de la campagne (pré-alpha, post-alpha etc..) (Simoni, 1977, Onushkin, 1982) et reflétèrent les objectifs nationaux (UNESCO ROEAP report, 1977).

Finalement, **L'EVALUATION** des campagnes, qui se fit le plus souvent de manière informelle, permit de *vérifier l'effet rétroactif des activités* entreprises durant la campagne. L'évaluation micro-structurelle mesurait l'efficacité et l'efficience de ces activités exécutées tandis que, à plus large échelle, l'évaluation macro-structurelle contrôlait le bien-fondé des principes à l'origine de la mission rénovatrice nationale, et de la stratégie employée (Bhola, 1984).

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[1] La Tanzanie fait ici exception car le ministrère de l'éducation tanzanien assuma en grande partie les responsabilités de la campagne. (Simoni, 1977)

En définitive, les campagnes d'alphabétisation servirent à *mobiliser le peuple et les structures politiques en place autour d'une question consensuelle et pédagogique nationale.* La lutte contre l'analphabétisme représentait une *composante stratégique* pour la relance économique et l'acheminement vers une égalité sociale. La campagne d'alphabétisation constituait un *premier pas vers une société dynamique se développant grâce à l'éducation populaire permanente.*

De ces succès stratégiques tiers-mondistes pouvons-nous tirer des leçons utiles aux pays industrialisés qui, comme l'a souligné Paulo Freire (1970), ont également un 'tiers-monde' à gérer en dépit de leur prospérité économique.

## 2- Les campagnes nationales: leçons pour l'alphabétisation en milieu de travail?

Afin de demeurer compétitif le secteur industriel nord-américain doit constamment s'ajuster aux changements du milieu, lesquels ont été accéléré au cours des dernières décennies. Au Canada par exemple la robotisation industrielle, l'informatisation de la communication, liés à des facteurs socio-démographiques tels que l'immigration accrue et le vieillissement de la population ont accentué le taux d'analphabète fonctionnel et augmenté les pertes économiques qui en découlent (Canadian Business Task Force on Literacy, 1988). Aussi, le secteur industriel qui, depuis la récente signature de l'accord sur le libre-échange désire, plus que jamais, adopter une stratégie organisationnelle efficace et efficiente, s'inquiète de ce phénomène.

Par l'entremise d'organismes dévoués à la cause de l'alphabétisation, tel que Frontier College, plusieurs entreprises canadiennes ont ajouté des cours d'alphabétisation à leur programme de formation aux employés. L'intention est bonne mais il reste à savoir si, et comment, cette préoccupation pédagogique s'intègre à la stratégie corporative. L'analyse des campagnes nationales d'alphabétisation permet d'offrir les conclusions suivantes aux administrateurs d'entreprises:

1- L'alphabétisation *marginalisée* au secteur de la formation et engageant seulement les analphabètes fonctionnels n'est qu'un paliatif temporaire à la crise canadienne actuelle. Afin de susciter un véritable changement l'alphabétisation doit devenir un *instrument stratégique* au sein de l'industrie. Comme tel, elle doit être intégrée à la planification, à l'exécution et à l'évaluation du plan d'action de l'organisation.

2- Afin de souligner, et de concrétiser, le caractère syncrétique de cette démarche pédagogique la participation *individuelle et collective* de tous les employés s'avère nécessaire. A court terme, il faut donc oeuvrer à engager chaque personne et chaque département dans des activités spécifiques liées, de près ou de loin, à l'alphabétisation. A long terme l'on devrait souhaiter la modification *du milieu organisationnel au sein duquel* les employés, après être intervenus de façon concertée dans la lutte contre l'alphabétisation, s'impliqueraient quotidiennement dans un processus d'enseignement personnel et mutuel.

3- A plus grande échelle, et comme l'on parle de stratégie globale à l'égard de l'Europe de 1992, il faut espérer une perméabilisation des barrières entre les différents secteurs privés, publics et non-gouvernementaux canadiens qui 's'informeraient' l'un l'autre de leurs besoins et de leurs ressources afin de collaborer au maintien et au développement de l'économie canadienne.

4- Cette nouvelle *culture corporative* au sein d'une société dynamisée par l'éducation et de la formation continue de la collectivité fait ses preuves dans les sociétés industrielles des régions orientales du globe. Le Canada saura-t-il tirer profit de ces exemples encourageants?

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# ARTHUR LISMER : ARTIST/ ADULT EDUCATOR, AESTHETIC EXPERIENCE AND THE UNIVERSAL LEARNING EXPERIENCE *

Thelma Barer- Stein, Ph.D.

Those who are involved in the arts rarely see themselves as educators. Arthur Lismer, distinguished member of Canada's Group of Seven, did. His philosophy about art and life were enacted in his teaching of children and adults, and are discussed in this paper against the framework of the Universal Learning Process, highlighting the role of creativity and reflection in daily living and learning.

Il et rare que ceux qué s'engagent dans les art se voient comme educateurs. Et purtant, Arthur Lismer, membre distingué du Groupe des Septs du Canada, se voyaint ainsi. Dans son enseignement aux enfants et aux adultes, it mettait en pratique sa philosophie de l'art et de la vie. Cette discussion traite de la philosophie de Lismer dans le cadre du Processus Universel de L'Apprentissage, tout en soulignant le rôle de la réflexion et de la créativitié dans la vie et l'apprentissage quotidiens.

Artists and those involved in promoting the arts rarely see themselves as adult educators. Arthur Lismer, distinguished member of Canada's Group of Seven Artists, recognised and used his ability as an artist to enhance his work in art education and promote his philosophy that art must be demystified in order to create an art-loving public. (Kelly, 1982) Attempting to make the aesthetic experience a conscious one, he strove to actively involve a "complacent and apathetic" Haligonian population in art as part of daily living.

This paper briefly discusses this aspect of Lismer's work, highlighting how he succeeded in moving individuals from complacency in the arts to lifelong love of the arts, and how his process of achieving this parallels with the Barer-Stein model of a Universal Learning Process in which aesthetic experience can be seen as enhancing outcome of learning.

* condensed version of CASAE Conference presentation Québec, 1989.

## LISMER AS ARTIST AND ADULT EDUCATOR

Three main periods of Lismer's life, marked by his sojourn in three Canadian cities : Halifax, Toronto and Montreal, display his energetic pursuit to create that art-loving public. Looking at those years through writings from his daughter, Kelley of the Dalhousie Art Gallery (1982), Lismer's own journals and an interview from a former child-member of Lismer's Toronto Art Gallery ( now the Art Gallery of Ontario) Saturday morning classes -- artist Townsend, reveals a calm and serene home life in contrast to the vitality and excitement of his lectures and classes.

Faced with a bleak old mausoleum -like building, 12 pupils and no staff; a second floor 'art gallery' of musty second rate paintings, Lismer set about making his sojourn as principal of the Victoria School of Art & Design in Halifax memorable. He had "no particular ideas about teaching at all " (Kelley, 1982:12) and probably "formulated his populist theory of art education in order to defend it" (Kelley, 1982:14) and to shake the apathy and complacency of ultra-conservative Haligonians.

He believed that art was the heritage of all, and that if it was to have its rightful place in Canadian daily life it had to be demystified.He managed to get local organizations to sponsor awards and even scholarships for art students, but eventually went after small children for Saturday morning art classes in order to have bodies in the school.To the adults on his rounds of lectures and energetic sketches, he spoke of how art appreciation could enhance the quality of life and inform industrial design of all kinds. He started the children with talks about exotic things illustrated with his own cartoons ; walked with them to local potters, weavers, jewellry makers, sculpters and painters; spread huge rolls of brown wrapping paper, crayons, pencils, paints, water pots and children all over the floors and let them go to it. Other times he let them wander through libraries to pick a book, to hear a story and then to describe it in line, color and fired imagination.Parents and elder siblings came to watch and stayed to dabble shyly themselves,in the wonders of color.

Realising that the drab musty paintings sheltered in the gallery could inspire no one, Lismer boldly suggested that the National Gallery in Ottawa crate their best of Canadian works for a Halifax showing. They did, and people came. He painted huge murals for the Green Lantern Restaurant, not for the pay, but because he believed that would set art in a real everyday setting. Touched by this opportunity to "promote Canadian art at a much more fundamental level " than he or his colleagues had been aware of in their European training or in Toronto, Lismer now educated gallery visitors with the same zest he poured into his work with the children.What few knew was that he alone was the art gallery's curator, shipper, packer, hanger-of-paintings, guide and even secretary.All of which left precious little time for his own work as an artist.

Wearying of the "hard-headed old Presbyterians without an atom of imagination " (Kelley, 1982:30) he returned to Toronto as the vice-principal of the Ontario College of Art and the heartening support of his friends, A.Y. Jackson, J.E.H. MacDonald and others.But it was Thomson, who died so tragically in a canoeing accident that had given Lismer the most cause for puzzling reflection :

> To those of us who had art training who approached a new work with preconceived ideas of how to paint it-- with misgivings about lighting, colour, and drawing -- he was ever a source of wonder that he without any training, without any worries as to how it should be done --- did produce finely conceived works of art that have no convention with styles or schools, with the 'academic' or the modern --- He was a painter of Canada...
>
> (Lismer, in Kelley, 1982:16)

Known for his paintings of "raw colour, heavy impasto, deliberately coarse brushwork and simplified form" (Canadian Encyclopedia, 1988) , nonetheless, "Lismer devoted most of his time to art education" (Can. Encyc., 1988:1217) What he had learned from his children's art classes and his reflections on Thomson became the pattern for his art education in both Toronto and Montreal, and which he carried with him on his sojourns in South Africa, Australia and New Zealand.

He became more and more focused in his public message that art could be demystified "only by active expression and self-criticism" and that the common task of art educators was to "release child expression in the arts" and he felt that "the love of created things and the desire towards expression in some form of artistic effort " was common to all peoples and to all ages.(Bridges, 1977:3) Lismer spoke of art as "the common language of art in action" and by this he meant that art was in the doing, he tried to "remove the pedestal-gazing aspect of art" (Bridges, 1977:32) Returning from a year of teaching at Columbia in New York, he noted :

> ... they feel so little about less and less.I want to get my pick into their statistical exteriors and find the real man inside....Contemplation is apparently a weakness... these people know so much about how the mind works, they do not stop to contemplate what it works on. (Lismer, in Bridges, 1977:45)

In speaking of her father, Marjorie Lismer Bridges says: "For him art was not only a craft to be learned by the few, but something for everybody, as natural as living..." Repeating over and over, Lismer stressed that the appreciation of art was not in the reception of it,but the individual's response to it which he saw as " the capacity to step forward into new vistas and deeper into one's own nature." (Bridges,1977:77)

> All education should be saturated with a liberal infusion of the natural instinct of man to create. ....Something happens and life is changed ever so little, but it is there, a new and wonderful experience....Inside each one of us is an artist.
>
> (Lismer in Bridges, 1977:85,109)

## THE AESTHETIC EXPERIENCE

I have selected Dewey's view of an 'experience' and Eyford's Model of Aesthetic Education (1975) as the understanding of what an aesthetic experience might be, in order to explain Lismer's work as an art educator against the framework of my Universal Learning Process.

Eyford quotes from Dewey's Art as Experience (1934), noting that "the aesthetic experience is simply the ultimate form of experience" and in Dewey's words :

> That which distinguishes an experience as aesthetic is conversion of resistance and tension, of excitations that in themselves are temptations to diversion into a movement towards inclusive and fulfilling close. (Dewey, 1934:55)

Eyford explains that Dewey's position "is that the process itself is more important than the final product; or rather that the process is the product." (Eyford, 1975:170)In other words the quality of what is happening within the interaction of the individual and something (or someone) else is crucial to the ultimate sense of that experience. Lismer did not rely on lectures of dry facts about art or artists, he excited all the senses by deliberating appealing to them , by teaching in Browning's sense "obliquely" organising energies to create and attempt to complete the incomplete , by revelling in the exotic of what is different and has to be discovered, explored.

> It is because of the central importance of experience, experiment and interaction with the environment in Dewey's philosophy , that art or the aesthetic experience becomes the model for effective living.

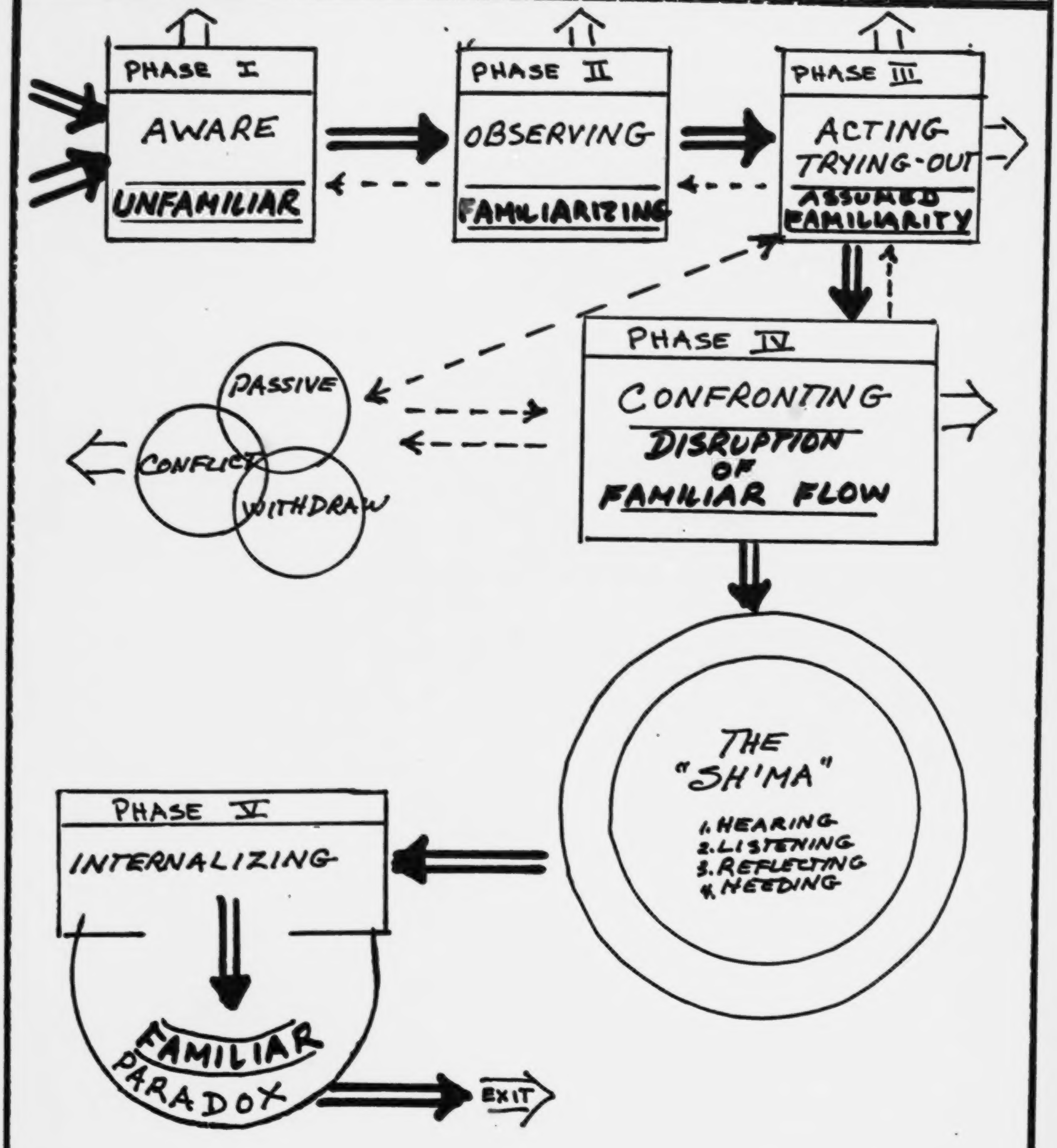
## THE UNIVERSAL LEARNING PROCESS

Because of space limitations here, I have included a model depicting the Universal Learning Process (Barer-Stein, 1989) , a refinement of earlier depictions (Barer-Stein, 1987a, 1987b, 1988a )to indicate the individual's movement from the unfamiliar towards the familiar which stresses the individual's totality of engagement within a profound reflective and creative process called the Sh'ma. Without such engagement, the individual is merely "assuming familiarity" , posing as knowledgeable, but lacks that inner excitement of such reflective and actual creativity (an aethetic experience) enumerated by Eyford :(1975:387-390) aelf-rewarding , total and coherent, metaphoric and involving,sacred and non-discursive, and above all vital :

> The learning experience must result in the creation, rather than the depletion, of energy and vitality. It must cause an organization of energies, ...sharpen the faculties, strengthen perception, and heighten a general sense of well-being.

The communication of the aesthetic experience through a process of learning is precisely what is depicted by an individual proceeding through the process of learning and being supported to engage in the Sh'ma towards a goal of Internalizing (understanding, involving and empathizing). Lismer engaged the children is such a process and they in turn engaged the other members of their families. What might we achieve when teaching is seen as an art and learning as an aesthetic experience?

FIGURE NO. 1: MODEL OF THE BARER-STEIN "UNIVERSAL LEARNING PROCESS"*



* © 1985 THELMA BARER-STEIN

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# BOOTSTRAPPING AND SHOESTRINGING TO ACADEMIC RESPECTABILITY: A CASE REPORT

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Abstract: This is a first-person account of how a university continuing education unit attempted to decrease its marginality by increasing its visibility and activity in research.

Résumé: Cette étude propose de décrire comment une unité d'éducation permanente a tenté de diminuer sa marginalité en augmentant sa visibilité et activité en recherche.

### Introduction

This is a case report of an attempt by a continuing education unit to build its scholarship and research. Because I was centrally involved, I have chosen to write in the first person. The text is shortened for these *Proceedings*. An expanded version is available from the author.

University divisions and faculties of continuing education live in the shadows of their host institutions, simultaneously sharing and rejecting the larger group's culture and values. Numerous authors, (Devlin, 1982; Blaney, 1987; Wagner, 1987) have observed this uneasy relationship and its implications.

### Context

The unit examined presently comprises 72 full-time staff. Seventeen of these hold professiorial or instructor ranks, of these, 13 are full-time within the faculty, two are cross-appointed with other faculties, and two are part-time. All have programming responsibilities. Seven hold doctorates.

The unit is responsible for non-credit programming, and for administration of spring, summer and off-campus credit programs. It is also very active in audio-teleconferencing.

Thirteen years ago the unit moved from "division" to faculty status. For the first few years, the unit acted in much the same way as it had as a division.

During the early 1980's, the Faculty experienced a series of deep budget cuts, dis-proportionately larger than any other academic units. A strategic planning process was initiated and during this examination it was concluded that, in order to survive, the unit would have to "look more like a Faculty". This paper traces the process by which the unit consciously strategized to secure its future by attempting to improve its research and scholarship.

### Methodology

I have labelled this a case report rather than a case study. Strictly speaking, it meets most criteria of a case study (Merriam, 1988).

Personal experience was the main data source. These experiences were checked against minutes, newsletters, annual reports and various files to which I had access.

## Gaining a base-line

Where does one start when one occupies a newly-created position of Associate Dean (Research and Development)? The letter of appointment said I was responsible for formulating and implementing policy and procedures relating to graduate and undergraduate teaching, research, and grant development.

My first action was to interview all faculty as to their interest in, and commitment to, research and teaching, and resources required to achieve these goals. These interviews provided richer data than I had anticipated. Information gained was collated and fed into a series of informal meetings which we dubbed the "Research Forum". Although open to all faculty and programmers, meetings were primarily attended by faculty who were doing research in adult education. From these meetings some concensus was reached as to major actions required. The 1984 meeting notes identified our rationale for engaging in research: (1) increasing acceptability within the university; (2) increasing the possibilities of several faculty members,(who were at the top of the associate professor rank), to move to full professor by increasing their scholarship and research. At that stage in our development they represented, I believe, the vantage point from which we were looking.

At these research forums we priorized those resources required for faculty to increase their research. These included greater access to books and journals, research assistance, equipment, secretarial support, increased publication opportunities, access to expertise in research, data-processing and analysis, and funding. Suggestions were also made as to means of stimulating research through graduate supervision, teaching in credit and non-credit programs, and special seminars. The Forum further recommended that academic travel monies be devoted entirely to supporting communication of papers at professional and learned meetings.

Meeting notes and agenda of 1985 and 1986 reflect a continuing preoccupation with these basics, although new issues, such as criteria for judging research, and bidding for AERC began to appear as did issues relating to the units involvement in a Masters specialization in adult education.

These interviews also unearthed considerable discomfort and doubts about the move to increase emphasis on scholarship and research. It was evident that we were not starting with a carte blanche.

Although in reality progress was intermitent, intertwined with other developments, and often stalemated, several "action fronts",identified by the Forum, are described below.

## Personnel

It became apparent that faculty members had to be treated differently, given the diversity of commitment to research and teaching. Research Forum discussions centred around this issue, and in July, 1984 the approved Guidelines of the Faculty stated:

> "...we must recognize the individual interests, talents, and commitments of faculty to do research and attempt to redeploy resources accordingly. ...those faculty who consciously decide not to undertake heavy research responsibilities, will be expected to take on additional programming responsibilities." (Guidelines, 1984, p2).

Although this statement was acceptable to Forum members, other members including the dean, perceived that all faculty were expected by "the university" to do research, teaching/programming, and service. Thus an internal agreement was seen as violating norms of the larger institution, and potentially placing at risk the Faculty's efforts to reduce its marginality. This issue continues to resurface, although some resolution has been achieved.

Recruiting became another means by which the Faculty could move toward greater emphasis on scholarship. Fortunately two academic positions became vacant and were both filled by individuals with doctorates in adult education. In both cases, I found it necessary to strongly advocate for faculty research interests during recruiting and selection.

Upon reflection, opposing pulls between research and programming began surfacing early on. These issues remain with the unit today.

### Developing Confidence

To counteract the malaise resulting from deep budget cuts and external reviews, at least as it related to scholarship, I undertook several initiatives. The first was to develop close links with the staff of the official university newspaper. As a result, we were able to increase substantially our relative proportion of coverage in this medium, and the Faculty's visibility within the university.

The second initiative was to produce a bi-annual newsletter which highlighted research and grants activities within the Faculty. This was sent to all senior university personnel and to heads of university continuing education and adult education teaching units in Canada. Although ostensibly to "...encourage cross communication amongst those involved in research and development in continuing/adult education...", the net effect was to raise visibility of faculty members and their research.

A third initiative was to bid for (and win) hosting of the AERC and CASAE conferences in 1988, and the co-sponsorship of a conference on participatory research. By involving graduate students, practitioners, and faculty from other university departments in promoting and carrying out these conferences, an embryonic local network evolved and solidified, leading to a growing sense of identification with an adult education research community.

The net effect of these and other actions seemed to raise the Faculty's profile nationally and internationally. As positive feedback was received, one could sense growing confidence in those doing research within the unit.

### Developing Support

Several specific resource needs were identified in the Research Forum. We reasoned that we needed additional institutional support to counter the lack of a conducive research climate.

A portion of a program staff members time was assigned to tracking funding, helping faculty write funding proposals and accessing various federal and provincial job-creation programs.

Attempts to secure a permanent research assistant were rejected due to unstable finances. Several research assistants were hired on soft funding, but constant turnover, resulting in increased effort in supervision, proposal writing and in discontinuity made this less and less attractive.

Previously accumulated adult-education books, journals and fugitive literature were centralized as a resource collection. Attempts to solicit donations from publishers were abandoned because of the erratic results. Staff and faculty were assigned responsibilities for recommending acquisitions of sections which were closest to their area of research interest.

Other support systems implemented included direct computer access to the main library holdings, subsidized electronic literature searches and faculty seminars on research methods.

Although less specific in nature, a surprising amount of my time as Associate Dean was devoted to such behind-doors activities as listening to, and encouraging faculty to carry out research and sometimes running interference between them and other institutional demands.

## Teaching

We believed that greater academic parity could be attained if faculty were to teach graduate credit courses and supervise graduate students. How can one teach in a Faculty which, by university policy, could only grant certificates? Fortunately, groundwork had been set prior to my arrival.

After eight years of discussion with the Faculty of Education, agreement was reached in 1984 to pool resources in an adult education M.Ed specialization which would be housed in the Faculty of Education. The first students were admitted in 1985, and between ten to fifteen students are accepted each year.

This venture is perceived variously by members of both faculties. At best, it is held up as a shining example of inter-faculty cooperation. At worst, it is seen as an unjust balance of rewards and sweat. The contents of the 1989 Research Forum minutes suggest that ambivalence about our involvement continues to exist.

## Leading and Learning

How does an associate dean who spent most of his university career as a programmer, now provide leadership in a relatively foreign endeavour such as research?

Fortuitously, I was nominated to the university research grants committee, and later chaired the social sciences sub-committee. This resulted in greater campus-wide visibility (and some notoriety!). As a result, I became aware of the implicit and explicit rules involved in grants-getting and was able to coach several of our faculty members on preparing their proposals.

With some unintended audacity, a colleague and I surveyed researchers in Canada and later, interviewed some of the most prolific North American adult education researchers about how they dealt with research. These experiences increased our own confidence and simultaneously provided data for several papers, now published. We were also able to establish rapport with some of the interviewees, leading to invitations, and increased networking, which continue today.

These experiences, and others, had an accumulative effect on my own sense of legitimacy as a researcher and as a significant contributor to adult education research.

## Retrospective

An initial review of faculty publications suggests that research "output" did not increase from 1984 to 1989. Far more papers have been presented at AERC and CASAE since 1984, suggesting greater focus on adult education and away from professional meetings. Similarly, AEQ, CJSAE, IJCC, and Atlantis - journals reputed for tougher standards - figure more prominently in recent years in faculty member's journal articles. Members now hold editorial or editorial board positions on several respected Canadian and American adult education journals.

Most faculty members agree that this unit is now "on the map" as a source of adult education research and teaching. The increased visibility and activity of the research function within the Faculty has led to some tension and a clearer division between researchers and programmers, although this tension appears to be on the wain recently. One explanation of this tension is that we have now created two visible and strong sub-cultures which compete internally for scarce resources, and thus perceive the other as a threat.

Because all faculty have both programming and research responsibilities, much of this tension is internalized, and this has been expressed by these members in terms of lack of time and unfair expectations to maintain excellence in both functions.

The rise of research and teaching as a new major thrust also places the senior unit administrators in ambivalent situations. Given that programming remains the bread and butter, but research and teaching is the cake, decisions as to allocations of fixed resources is now made more difficult than previously.

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# COMMENT L'ADULTE PEUT-IL SE FAMILIARISER AVEC LES RESSOURCES DISPONIBLES A SA CROISSANCE PERSONNELLE

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## RESUME

La réflexion sur la croissance de l'adulte et sur ses implications étant bien lançée, il convient maintenant de saisir l'adulte des ressources sur lesquelles il peut compter en vue de maximiser sa croissance personnelle.

## ABSTRACT

The actual reflexion on the nature of adult growth and on its implications is now well documented. It is now important to become aware of the existing resources that can enhance personal growth.

## INTRODUCTION

Jourard soutient que même si " la croissance a toujours fasciné la personne, cette dernière ne l'a généralement étudiée que de l'extérieur "(1975,p. 307, traduction libre).

C'est probablement la raison pour laquelle trop d'adultes ignorent encore et toujours que la croissance de la personne est un long processus et que celui-ci s'accompagne de circonstances ou de situations qui nécessitent de la part de l'adulte une implication parfois fort importante. La croissance est avant tout la mise en place des dimensions qui, toutes proportions gardées, contribuent à structurer l'existence, à la rendre significative et gratifiante. Plus précisément, la croissance de l'adulte est une ouverture à soi: c'est, comme le mentionne Jung " un moment de grand déploiement et le temps pendant lequel la personne doit faire l'expérience de sa propre intériorité " (Jacobi & Hull, 1973, p. 136-137, traduction libre).

La croissance est également un processus qui doit constamment composer avec la double réalité suivante, à savoir la différentiation et l'intégration. D'une part, " tout adulte, quel que soit son âge, sa situation ou son stade développemental (...) doit faire le point sur ses acquis, mettre de l'ordre dans tout ce qui se présente afin de mieux voir la direction qu'il entend donner à sa vie " (Bédard, 1987, p. 472. D'autre part, l'intégration consiste en la " réalisation d'un ensemble nouveau où les éléments ont perdu leur individualité propre et doivent recevoir de l'ensemble leur signification et leur rôle " (Wallon, 1945, p. 203). Dans cette perspective, croître, consiste essentiellement à organiser son existence autour d'une synthèse significative.

La croissance est aussi un défi à soi-même. Et même si " grandir fait un peu peur " (Sheehy, 1977, p. 62 ), l'adulte doit consentir à des remises en question périodiques de " sa structure de vie " (Levinson, 1978 ). Le défi de la croissance consistera alors à accepter " que des changements importants viendront parfois déranger ses acquis, ses sécurités, ses habitudes " (Bédard,1987, p.475).

## LES RESSOURCES A LA CROISSANCE PERSONNELLE

La réflexion entreprise sur la croissance de l'adulte a maintenant beaucoup à gagner en significations et en implications si elle considère ce qui pourrait amener davantage l'adulte à mieux se familiariser avec des ressources qui sont à sa disposition et dont l'utilité ne fait pas de doute.

Deux types de ressources sont à la portée de tout adulte et nous croyons qu'il est essentiel de montrer que ces appuis sont accessibles, disponibles et bénéfiques.

### 1) la personne en tant que ressource pour elle-même

Trop d'adultes se comportent encore comme des spectateurs de leur croissance et cela parce qu'ils considèrent de façon consciente ou inconsciente, qu'ils ne possèdent pas suffisamment de ressources pour composer efficacement avec la réalité et les composantes de leur croissance.

Dans cette perspective, certains adultes " développent une attitude de méfiance à l'égard de ce qu'ils ressentent " (Artaud, 1985, p.34 ). Et pourtant, étant donné que l'adulte passe, comme l'enfant et l'adolescent d'ailleurs, par des stades développementaux dont les composantes sur tous les plans exigent des implications bien précises, il devient nécessaire pour l'adulte de s'ouvrir à lui-même, de laisser venir ce qui tente d'émerger et de cultiver une attention toute particulière envers les questions qui selon Jung, viendront en temps et lieux.

Ce qui est important de réaliser c'est que, toutes proportions gardées, l'adulte a en lui les moyens de devenir plus conscient de sa croissance, de l'animer, de la gérer et de la contrôler. Le temps est venu de dire à l'adulte " qu'il y a en chacun de nous celui qui a toutes les ré -

ponses (...) Les réponses sont en nous et ces réponses attendent les questions pour se manifester " (Languirand , 1978, p. 153).

Cependant, cette dynamique questions-réponses ne saurait être introduite sans de solides prises de conscience de son inachèvement. A ce propos, l'adulte a un urgent besoin de réaliser " que des niveaux de conscience différents peuvent être atteints " ( Davy, 1974, p. 26 ). Une fois de plus, il faut rappeler que ce que vit l'adulte, sur quelque plan que ce soit, est véritablement une occasion de parvenir à des niveaux de conscience, à condition, il va sans dire, que l'ouverture à soi dont parle Rogers, devienne une réalité.

En définitive, l'adulte peut se familiariser avec ses ressources intérieures en acceptant de vivre des transformations qui, selon Mezirow (1981) sont des expressions d'une nouvelle saisie de soi à la lumière des changements qui se produisent en soi et autour de soi.

### 2) L'éducation comme ressource à la croissance

Que l'éducation en général ait été dans le passé une des ressources fort importante pour placer la personne en contact avec l'acquisition de la connaissance, ne fait aucun doute. Cependant, en nous appuyant sur le Rapport Faure(1973) il nous apparait important de souligner que les dimensions de la personne en croissance n'étaient pas toutes traitées avec la même importance dans le cadre traditionnel de l'éducation. Cela signifie que la croissance sur tous les plans n'a pas retenu tout l'espace que nous lui souhaitons maintenant. C'est précisément dans cette perspective que nous croyons que la croissance de la personne serait mieux servie si l'éducation en général et l'éducation des adultes en particulier, se présentaient comme des ressources sur lesquelles des appuis importants seraient recherchés et trouvés.

L'apprentissage, soutient Mezirow " a essentiellement pour but de nous aider à comprendre la signification de nos expériences et à réaliser que nos vies sont tissées de valeurs " (1985, p. 17, traduction libre ). Ainsi conçue,l'éducation s'éloigne de façon appréciable d'une mission traditionnellement et culturellement perçue comme étant celle de transmettre des connaissances et prend alors des proportions insoupçonnées. Il est alors question d'un type d'éducation qui ne laisse pas à l'écart la croissance de toute la personne. C'est une éducation dite " transformationnelle " vers laquelle tout apprenant, indépendamment de son âge ou de sa condition sociale, pourrait se référer dans la recherche des indispensables ressources directement reliées à sa croissance. Ce type d'éducation devient " transformationnel " dans la mesure où il permet à la personne de garder et de cultiver le contact avec elle-même; de saisir la composition de sa croissance et d'en réaliser la trajectoire et la complexité.

Ce qui est souhaitable en éducation, c'est la mise en place d'éléments ou de structures qui pourraient graduellement initier l'apprentissage de la croissance en tenant compte, il va sans dire, du rythme et de la maturation de tout apprenant.

Malheureusement, la culture, dans l'état actuel des choses, ne s'est pas encore montrée trop enthousiaste envers ce type d'éducation. C'est même le contraire qui selon Boyd & Myers (1985) s'est fait sentir et cela depuis fort longtemps.

Ce que nous offrons comme piste de réflexion et de recherche c'est de considérer plus attentivement la mutualité et la réciprocité de l'éducation instrumentale et " transformationnelle ". Ces deux types d'éducation ne devraient pas être présentés comme possédant des monopoles exclusifs sur la croissance mais plutôt comme des ressources valables, des points d'appui significatifs, des espaces riches en repères. Conséquemment, chacune d'elle devrait pouvoir profiter de la richesse de l'autre en offrant à la croissance ce que l'autre n'est pas en mesure de lui offrir. Même si l'articulation de cette mise en place reste encore à définir, à circonscrire et à articuler, nous osons croire que l'éducation, en tnat que système, n'a pas à se défendre d'être à l'écoute et à la disposition de toute la personne.

## CONCLUSION

L'exploration de ressources significatives en vue de faire progesser la croissance propose des défis importants car, dans plusieurs cas, une remise en question de certains acquis devient nécessaire. Cette perspective est également exigeante car comme le mentionne Smith " even after having made a voluntary decision to engage in learning, we resist remaking ourselves " (1982, p. 45 ).

De plus, il ne faudrait pas croire que tous les adultes sont convaincus d'une part de la présence en eux de ressources personnelles et d'autre part des appuis éventuels fournis par l'éducation. Dans ces circonstances, le travail de l'adulte sur lui-même ou le travail d'adultes avec d'autres adultes ne pourrait être possible que dans la mesure où de nouveaux états de conscience sont générés à partir d'une réalité qui illustre que l'adulte a tout à gagner en utilisant les ressources qui sont à sa disposition.

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# FORMATION PERSONNALISÉE PAR ORDINATEUR

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La D.F.D. a mis au point un programme informatisé de formation personnalisée qui permet de diagnostiquer, dans chaque cas, les besoins de formation en orthographe, d'imprimer, sur mesure, la formation qui convient et de véhiculer cette formation par la poste. La D.F.D. a ainsi su joindre la technologie moderne de l'enseignement assisté par ordinateur et les véhicules traditionnels que sont l'imprimé et la poste pour assurer à une très grande masse d'individus une formation personnalisée en orthographe.

The D.F.D. has designed and developed an entirely computer-based, personalized learning program which generates and prints out, on the basis of an initial diagnosis of each person's weaknesses in written French (Orthography), a tailored set of written course materials which is then posted to the student. The D.F.D. has thus combined a particular form of computer-assisted learning technology with the more traditional vehicles of print and the postal service, in order to offer to a great number of people an opportunity to learn the correct usage of basic written French.

La Direction de la formation à distance du ministère de l'Éducation du Québec (jusqu'à janvier 1989, Direction des cours par correspondance) a enregistré, du 1er avril 1988 au 31 mars 1989 tout près de 52 000 inscriptions dans plus de 200 cours différents.

La D.F.D. offre à sa clientèle du matériel d'apprentissage individualisé conçu spécialement pour un apprentissage à distance. Un tiers environ de la clientèle n'utilise que ce matériel. Elle offre des services d'évaluation des apprentissages qui sont aujourd'hui largement informatisés. Deux clients sur trois ont recours à ce service. Elle offre enfin un service de tutorat par téléphone (également disponible en personne et par la poste).

Les clients, majoritairement entre 25 et 35 ans, sont, pour la plupart, actifs sur le marché du travail. On compte une même proportion d'hommes que de femmes. Ces clients proviennent de toutes les régions du Québec, à peu près dans les mêmes proportions que se distribue la population québécoise dans ces régions. Ainsi, 55% de la clientèle provient du grand bassin métropolitain de Montréal et 15% provient du grand bassin métropolitain de Québec. Les enquêtes ont démontré que c'est par choix surtout que les clients viennent à la formation à distance parce qu'ils la jugent plus pratique et plus souple.

La D.F.D., qui a toujours misé sur l'imprimé et sur la poste comme moyens principaux de formation à distance, a intégré, au fil des ans, plusieurs autres moyens: les trousses de laboratoire, le téléphone, les cassettes audio et vidéo, la télévision et l'informatique. Elle a amorcé tout récemment la publication de cours dans les journaux et compte, dans un avenir prochain, recourir à la télématique (déjà utilisée pour la consultation du répertoire et l'inscription) et au vidéodisque interactif.

Au cours des six dernières années, la D.F.D. a mis au point une technologie particulière qui utilise l'ordinateur pour faire l'évaluation des apprentissages. L'ordinateur a d'abord servi à faire la correction des devoirs. Puis, la technologie a été exploitée pour faire l'évaluation formative et le suivi des apprentissages. Elle sert maintenant pour faire de la formation personnalisée.

A notre connaissance, les recherches et les développements actuels en enseignement assisté par ordinateur supposent que l'étudiant utilise un terminal et qu'il soit branché "électroniquement" à l'ordinateur. En formation à distance, cela suppose, en outre, des lignes de télécommunication. L'expansion de cette technologie est donc limitée par la disponibilité et les coûts de ces moyens. En utilisant l'imprimé comme "interface" et la poste comme véhicule, nous pouvons donner à la formation personnalisée par ordinateur une expansion considérable.

La D.F.D. a ainsi pu réagir, en un an environ, au problème de la qualité du français écrit des québécois en programmant un cours sur l'orthographe intitulé "Du français, sans faute". Dans ce programme, chaque client est essentiellement en interaction avec l'ordinateur mais en "temps différé". Les habiletés, testées par l'imprimé et véhiculées par la poste, sont saisies informatiquement pour générer des activités d'apprentissage sur mesure qui sont imprimées et véhiculées par la poste. C'est ainsi que la D.F.D. peut envisager de desservir simultanément par ce programme des dizaines de milliers de clients tout en personnalisant la formation. Le programme est accessible à tous les québécois et à des coûts maintenus aussi bas que possible.

Décomposé en boucles d'apprentissage d'une quinzaine d'heures chacune, le programme "Du français, sans faute" permet à chaque client de conserver le contrôle sur sa démarche et sur ses objectifs personnels d'apprentissage: le client fait parvenir ses réponses à un nouveau test tant qu'il désire continuer sa démarche; il cesse de faire parvenir de telles réponses lorsqu'il juge ses besoins satisfaits. Chaque boucle d'apprentissage varie selon les clients puisqu'une boucle ne contient que ce qui correspond à des difficultés pour le client, là où il est rendu dans l'ensemble du programme.

Il a fallu, évidemment, pour concevoir ce programme de formation personnalisée par ordinateur, faire appel à des "ingénieurs pédagogiques" qui ont mis au point les outils d'évaluation appropriés, la vaste grille d'analyse nécessaire, qui ont procédé à la "capsularisation" des activités d'apprentissage et à la rédaction des logiciels pour assembler conditionnellement les capsules d'apprentissage dans des boucles d'apprentissage d'une quinzaine d'heures.

Tous les québécois recevront à l'automne le questionnaire pour entrer dans le programme sans autre formalité. Les entreprises et les associations professionnelles seront invitées dans un deuxième temps à inscrire leur personnel ou leurs membres. Tout en garantissant la confidentialité des diagnostics particuliers, nous pourrons générer des diagnostics d'ensemble et de sous-ensembles pour les entreprises et les associations qui le désireront.

La D.F.D. disposera donc, dans quelques mois, des moyens de rejoindre de très grandes masses d'individus tout en personnalisant la formation. Elle pourra contribuer de façon sensible à rehausser la qualité de l'orthographe des québécois et la compétence au travail de milliers de personnes . Le programme "Du français, sans faute" pourra également être adapté pour seconder les enseignants qui oeuvrent à l'enseignement de l'orthographe au sein du système scolaire. Enfin, la technologie développée pourra servir ultérieurement dans d'autres domaines de formation.

# TEACHING BY TELECONFERENCE: WHAT GOES ON

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The paper outlines the evolution of the System for Audio-Teleconferencing Analysis (SATA) within a model for a distance learning environment, and initial testing of the system with distance credit courses. Results indicate that teleconference teaching varies widely in terms of interactivity on a number of variables.

Cette étude décrit l'évolution du " System for Audio-Teleconferencing Analysis " (SATA ) dans le cadre d'un modèle conçu pour l'enseignement à distance ainsi qu'une évaluation préliminaire des cours accrédités. Les résultats montrent que l'enseignement par téléconférence présente, sur un certain nombre de variables, un éventail d'interactions.

## Introduction

Despite the fact that audio-teleconferencing has been in use for nearly thirty years and has been used extensively in education since the 1960's, not a great deal has been done in investigating its use from the standpoint of educational theory. In recent years studies concerning audio-teleconferencing have been directed towards policy formation often based on case studies (Johansen et al, 1978; Bond, 1987; Ratcliffe, 1984) or towards the application of the medium to solve specific problems, e.g. delivery of educational programming to small rural schools (Wall, 1986; Barker, 1987; Riggs, 1987) or, indeed towards specific issues in the context of audio-teleconferencing, e.g. dropouts (Garrison, 1987). Few studies have been concerned with examining audio-teleconferencing as an instructional medium within a complex learning environment, a notable exception being Rothe (1985) who identified a number of interdependent variables and synthesized them into a representative model. This absence of theoretically based research means that too often courses are planned and delivered without an understanding of what goes on in audio-teleconference sessions. Without the knowledge of which techniques will work and which will not, why different instructors have vastly different instructional styles and myriad other questions, teleconferencing becomes simply an instructional "black box".

## Theoretical Model

The work reported in this paper is part of an ongoing project to explore an instructional model of the audio-teleconferencing teaching process. This model, developed by D. Kirby and

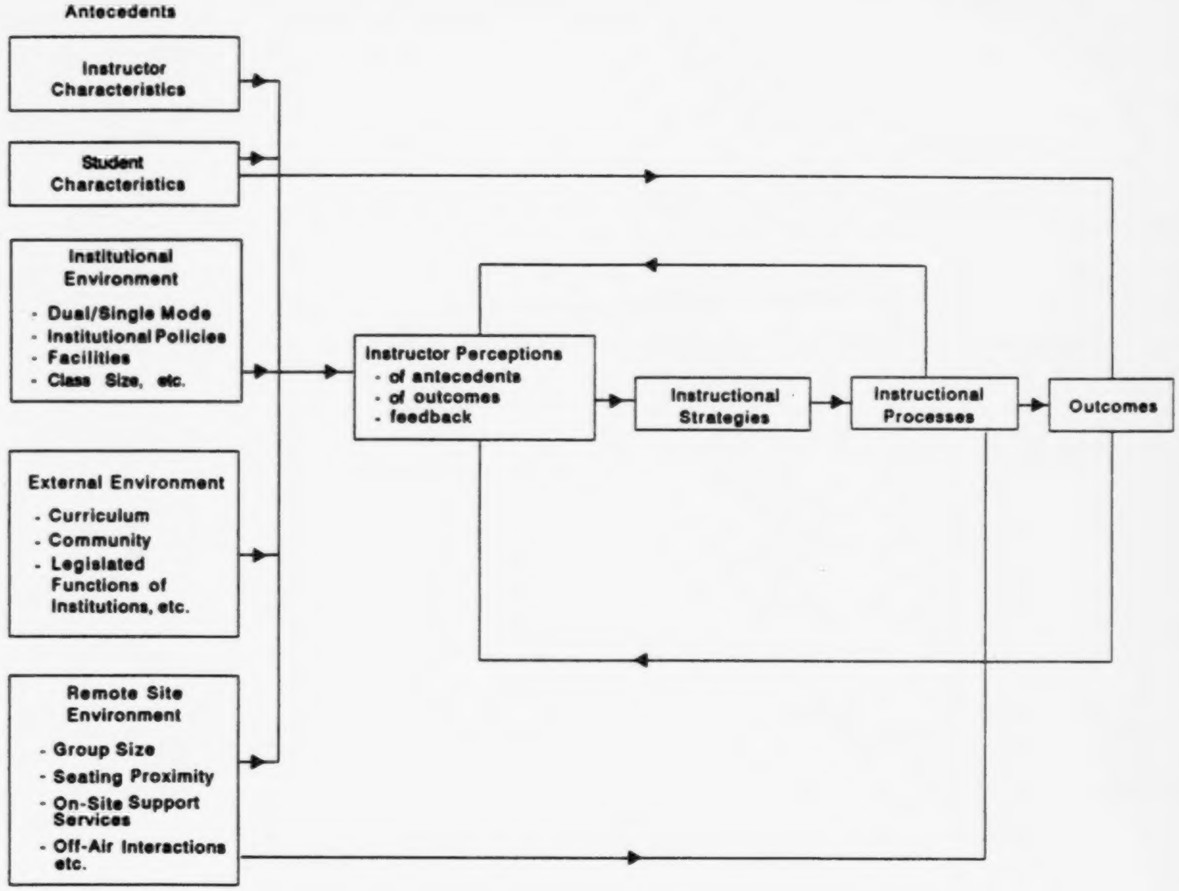

Figure 1: A Model for a Distance Learning Environment

C. Boak (1987), was derived from the work of investigators of the traditional classroom in the 1970's and 1980's.

The observational classroom studies of the 1970's attempted to correlate what went on in the classroom with the outcomes of instruction. Crocker and Associates (1978), dissatisfied with the correlational approach towards investigating instruction, sought to develop an explanatory model which focused on teacher decision-making in the classroom (Crocker, 1985). The model conceptualized teacher decision-making as a dynamic outcome of teacher predispositions and the objective situation, culminating in the teachers' definition of the situation. According to Crocker these elements comprise the antecedents of teacher behaviour or teacher strategies. Crocker is not alone in hypothesizing that teacher strategies are determined by teacher perceptions of the classroom setting. Other investigators such as Schuman and Johnson, 1976; Greiger, 1972; and Wicks cited in Thomas, 1971 have supported the interaction of predispositions and the objective situation as supporting teacher behaviours.

In developing a model for a distance learning environment (Figure 1) the authors have drawn heavily on the work of Crocker (1985) and earlier investigators, and have placed considerable emphasis on the antecedent factors found in a distance learning environment.

## The Instrument: SATA

One of the first tasks in investigating the proposed instructional model was to develop a system for examining the spoken interactions that take place in audio-teleconferencing sessions. By so doing, it was hoped to be able to characterize systematically and accurately, the processes of instruction. The System of Audio-Teleconferencing Analysis (SATA) grew out of a classroom observation system developed by Stallings and Kaskowitz (1974). Their Five Minutes Observation (FMO) described interactions using simple structured sentences. Each sentence was constructed using four codes; "Who does the action?; To Whom is it done?; What is done? and How is it done?" (Stallings & Kaskowitz, 1974, p. 28). For a more complete description of SATA see Kirby and Boak (1987), Boak and Kirby (1988; forthcoming). The coding categories and their constituent elements can be found in Figure 2.

## Methodology

SATA was pilot tested in a Women's Studies course at Memorial University of Newfoundland. The course was a multi-media off-campus credit course offered by the School of Continuing Studies and Extension in Fall, 1986. The pilot-study showed SATA to be a

WHO (initiatives of speech) and TO WHOM (recipients of speech)

| | |
|---|---|
| Instructor: | The individual teaching the course |
| Student: | An individual at one of the teleconferencing sites |
| Site: | The person(s) at one teleconferencing location |
| Class: | Members of all sites together |
| Other: | Teleconference operator, class member(s) who could not be categorized above. |

WHAT

Cognitive-Memory Question (M)
Evaluative Question (E)
Response (Rs)
Acknowledgements (A)
Identification (Id)
Convergent Question (C)
Question (Q)
Instruction or Explanation (Ie)
Feedback Positive (Fp)
Feedback Negative (Fn)
Divergent Question (D)
Request (R)
Comment or Remarks (Cm)
No Response (No)
Other (O)

CONTEXT

| | |
|---|---|
| Academic (A). | The speech pertains to the academic material of the course. |
| Procedural (P). | The speech pertains to actions, events or procedures that are necessary to the course but do not involve the study of academic material directly. |
| Social (S). | The speech is social or interpersonal in nature and does not relate directly to the academic material or procedures necessary to the course. |
| Other (O). | The situation cannot be classified according to the vocabulary elements above. |

Figure 2. SATA Coding Categories

comprehensive coding system which yielded reliable data after a comparatively short training period.

Following the pilot-test, SATA was used to analyze six distance education courses offered by Memorial University of Newfoundland in the Fall semester of 1987. The six courses differed in level and discipline as well as in the number of remote sites and number of distance delivery systems utilized. As expected, interactions in all the teleconferences were found to be principally academic in nature (79-96%) with much smaller occurrences of procedural (4-17%) and social (0.2-4.5%) interactions.

The use of questions by teachers and students was limited. We were particularly interested in questions since arguments to include audio-teleconferencing in distance education courses are often based upon the interactive nature of the medium and questioning is certainly an important way of promoting interchange. Even though the use of questions was relatively low overall, courses varied widely in terms of interactivity.

On the one hand, there was a non-interactive third year English course in which the instructor's speech occupied 99% of the teleconference time. In that course 97.5% of the teacher's speech was instruction/explanation and only 0.4% was questions; 97.3% of his speech was directed to the class as a whole while only 2.5% was directed to individual students. These numbers represent a one-way uni-dimensional lecture process that is missing the non-verbal cues present in a traditional classroom lecture presentation. These classes could have been presented on audio-cassette.

On the other hand there were two courses, a graduate course in Occupational Therapy and a second year Women's Studies course, in which the proportions of teacher and student speech were almost equal. Teacher speech was more varied in these courses, with approximately 60% instruction/explanation and 11% questions. Comments and acknowledgements were also present. In addition, teachers in these courses directed their speech equally to individuals and the class as a whole. These were balanced and truly interactive sessions that utilized the capacity of teleconferencing for verbal exchange. The amount of interchange in the other three courses fell between these two interactive courses just described and the uni-directional third year English sessions.

The gender of the teacher was related to the amount and kind of interactivity that occurred during the teleconferences. Courses taught by females were more interactive than those taught by males and this was evident in several ways. First, total teacher speech accounted for less of the teleconference time in classes taught by females, (47%, 54% and 79%) than by males (88%, 89% and 99%).

Secondly, female teachers addressed more of their speech to individual students (22%, 23% and 25% respectively) than male instructors (2%, 16% and 17% respectively). This was true although the subject matter and level of the courses varied widely. In all courses the predominant mode of teacher's speech was instruction/explanation (a range from 60% to 97%) but the classes taught by females were all less dominated by this category of speech (60-67%) than classes taught by males (78-97%).

There were also differences in the amount and direction of student speech between female and male-taught classes. Student speech accounted for 50% and 43% of the total teleconference speech in two of the female-taught courses. This compared with 20% in the third female-taught course and a range of 0.6% to 11% in the male-taught courses. Students in the female-taught classes spoke over the teleconferencing network to each other individually or to the class as a whole, whereas all interaction in the classes taught by males revolved around the instructor. To date, we have not related the gender of the students to patterns of interactions within the classes, but these results indicate that perhaps we should.

The reason for incorporating teleconferencing in distance delivery courses is that it introduces a real-time, potentially interactive medium into an educational system that is otherwise characterized by pre-planning and slow reaction times to questions and needs that arise. From this study, it is apparent that this potential is not always realized. These initial results indicate that the gender of the instructor and attention to individual students appear to be related to class interaction. More study needs to be carried out to define the relationships noted and to investigate factors from the model of the distance learning environment that impinge upon the teaching situation.

We believe that SATA does indeed tell us what goes on in teleconference teaching by providing a reliable system for determining the nature of the interactions that occur. Now we are interested in why patterns of interactions occur as they do.

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# Profil des apprenants âgés en formation à distance

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## RESUME

Même si les personnes âgées sont de plus en plus nombreuses à s'inscrire à des cours de formation à distance, leurs caractéristiques (âge, sexe, scolarité, cours suivis,...) sont peu connues. Cette recherche a donc pour objectif d'identifier le profil des apprenants âgés (55 ans et +) inscrits à des cours à distance du ministère de l'Éducation du Québec, durant l'année 1988.

## ABSTRACT

Although in recent years a more mature clientele has been registering in greater numbers for distance education courses, little information is available concerning this group's unique characteristics (age, sex, scolarity, courses taken,...). Therefore it is the objective of this paper to identify a profile particular to this group (55 + age group) enrolled in courses at the Direction de la formation à distance of the ministère de l'Éducation du Québec, for the year 1988.

# Profil des apprenants âgés en formation à distance

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## Contexte

La notion d'éducation permanente, intimement liée aux besoins de la société adulte, doit maintenant tenir compte d'une nouvelle clientèle qui réclame des droits égaux en ce qui concerne l'accessibilité à l'éducation. Les personnes âgées (55 ans, et +) forment depuis quelques années des groupes importants. Aux États-Unis seulement, Trent (1981) estimait, à partir des statistiques fournies par le Bureau de recensement des États-Unis, que la population âgée requérant des services éducatifs se situera à peu près à 30 millions de personnes en l'an 2000.
En formation à distance, ce phénomène a pris tellement d'ampleur que les concepteurs de cours sont contraints d'adapter les activités d'apprentissage à cette clientèle spécifique. En Grande Bretagne, 2700 personnes âgées étaient inscrites à des cours à distance de l'Open University. Kelly *et al.* (1988) considèraient même que 200,000(2%) des 10 millions de personnes âgées actives manifestaient un intérêt marqué pour l'éducation des adultes.

Au Québec, des 33,417 adultes inscrits à des cours par correspondance du ministère de l'Éducation pour l'année 1988, 4920 (14,7 %) étaient des apprenants âgés.

## Problématique

Plusieurs études ont fourni des renseignements sur la situation des apprenants âgés. Par exemple, les travaux de Penelope (1981) ont permis de distinguer deux types d'apprenants âgés: les SAVY (**s**chooled, **a**ctive, **v**erbal et **y**oung) et les ONUS (**o**lder, **n**ot verbal, **u**nschooled and **s**edentary). Jeanneret (1985) dresse le profil des personnes âgées inscrites à des cours à l'Université du 3$^{e}$ âge de Berne (Suisse), et Long (1987) dégageait d'écrits récents les caractéristiques de la participation des apprenants âgés.

Aussi, en formation à distance, particulièrement par correspondance et par téléconférence, le profil des apprenants adultes est bien connu depuis les écrits de Watters (1985), Boisvert (1988) et Dessaint (1988). Toutefois, peu de recherches ont porté sur les caractéristiques des apprenants âgés en formation à distance.

### Objectif

L'objectif spécifique de cette recherche est de dégager le profil des apprenants âgés en formation par correspondance du ministère de l'Éducation. Les variables descriptives traitées sont: l'âge, le sexe, la région de résidence, la scolarité et l'inscription aux cours.

### Cueillette des données

Les données ont été recueillies à partir du fichier des inscriptions du ministère de l'Éducation, pour l'année 1988.

### Age et sexe

Le nombre de personnes âgées inscrites en formation par correspondance représente 4920 apprenants. La moyenne d'âge de ces personnes est de 64,3 ans et elles se répartissent selon les groupes d'âge figurant au Tableau 1.

**Tableau 1**. Répartition des apprenants âgées selon l'âge et le sexe.

| **Âge** | **55-59** | **60-64** | **65-69** | **70-74** | **75-79** | **80 et +** | **Total** |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Nombre | 1571 | 1377 | 1179 | 552 | 192 | 49 | 4920 |
| % | 31,9 | 28,0 | 24,0 | 11,2 | 3,9 | 1 | 100 % |
| Femmes | 1123 | 956 | 767 | 369 | 123 | 31 | 3369 |
| % | 33,3 | 28,4 | 22,8 | 10,6 | 3,7 | 0,92 | 100 % |
| Hommes | 448 | 421 | 412 | 183 | 69 | 18 | 1551 |
| % | 28,9 | 27,1 | 26,6 | 11,8 | 4,5 | 1,2 | 100 % |

Le groupe des apprenants de 55 à 59 ans est le plus important. Il est intéressant de constater aussi que les personnes dont l'âge varie entre 55 et 69 (31,9 + 28 + 24) représentent 83,9% de tous les inscrits.

Les femmes sont significativement plus nombreuses ($X^2$= 16,5, dl= 5) en général et dans tous les groupes. Elles représentent aussi 68,5 % de toutes les personnes âgées inscrites tandis que les hommes ne représentent que 31,5 %.

## RÉGION DE RÉSIDENCE

**Tableau 2.** Répartition des apprenants âgés par région de résidence.

| **RÉGION** | **NOMBRE** | **%** |
|---|---|---|
| Montréal métropolitain | 2157 | 45,6 |
| Québec | 775 | 16,4 |
| Laurentides-Lanaudière | 453 | 9,6 |
| Mauricie | 425 | 9,0 |
| Autres | 918 | 19,4 |
| **Total** | **4728** | **100 %** |

Les personnes âgées, comme le montre le Tableau 2, résident principalement dans quatre régions du Québec. Il est intéressant de constater que sur 16 régions, 80,2 % des personnes habitent l'une des quatre régions mentionnées au Tableau 2 et que les Montréalais représentent presque la moitié (45,6 %) de toutes les personnes inscrites.

## SCOLARITÉ ANTÉRIEURE

La scolarité des apprenants en formation à distance est habituellement élevée. Les apprenants âgés par correspondance du ministère de l'Éducation ne font pas exception à la règle puisque 1376 (37,2 %) d'entre eux ont une formation universitaire.

**TABLEAU 3.** SCOLARITÉ DES APPRENANTS ÂGÉS

| Formation | primaire | secondaire | collégiale | universitaire | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Nombre | 615 | 1276 | 437 | 1376 | 3704 |
| % | 16,6 | 34,4 | 11,8 | 37,2 | 100 % |
| Inconnue | | | | | 616 |

Comme le montre le Tableau 3, près de la moitié des apprenants, soit 49 % (37,2 + 11,8), ont obtenu au moins un diplôme d'études collégiales.

## INSCRIPTION AUX COURS

Bien que l'inscription soit possible toute l'année, les apprenants semblent manifester des préférences pour certaines périodes. En effet, 2319 inscriptions, soit 47,1 %, ont été enregistrées durant la période estivale (juin-juillet-août). L'automne (sept.-oct.-nov.) est la deuxième période la plus active avec 1260 (25,6 %) inscriptions, suivi de près par la période couvrant les mois de mars, avril et mai avec 1009 inscriptions, soit 20,5 % des apprenants.

La très grande majorité (94,9 %) des apprenants âgés se sont inscrits à un seul cours offert par le ministère de l'Éducation durant l'année 1988.

Les apprenants âgés ont aussi une préférence marquée pour certains cours. En effet, les cours offerts dans le secteur de la santé regroupent plus des trois quarts (3981 ou 80,9 %) des apprenants. Le secteur des techniques agricoles regroupe 231 (4,7 %) personnes, celui des cours de langue anglaise 165 (3,4 %) personnes et celui des sciences humaines 118 (2,4 %).

## PROFIL DES APPRENANTS ÂGÉS

Durant l'année 1988, le groupe d'apprenants âgés était en majorité composé de femmes (68,5 %) dont l'âge moyen était de 64,3 ans et près des deux tiers (61,7 %) d'entre elles étaient âgées de 55 à 64 ans. Elles habitaient surtout la région de Montréal (45,6 %) et elles s'inscrivaient généralement à un seul cours (94,9 %), de préférence durant la période estivale (47,1 %). Les apprenants âgés avaient au moins une scolarité d'études secondaires (83,4 %) et s'inscrivaient surtout à des cours identifiés au secteur de la santé (80,9 %).

## CONCLUSION

Le profil des apprenants âgés inscrits aux cours par correspondance du ministère de l'Éducation du Québec correspond assez bien aux caractéristiques des autres clientèles d'apprenants âgés en formation à distance ou en formation sur le campus.

Ainsi, comme le faisait remarquer Reeder (1972), la santé est la première priorité des citoyens âgés. Il n'est donc pas surprenant que ces personnes s'inscrivent à des cours du secteur santé. Morrison (1962) mentionne aussi que la moyenne d'âge des apprenants âgés de l'Open University est de 63,8 ans et que la catégorie des personnes ayant entre 55 et 64 ans représente plus des trois quarts des participants. Au Québec les données relatives à la moyenne d'âge (m= 64,3) et aux catégories d'âge les plus importantes manifestent les mêmes tendances que celles de l'open Université. La répartition approximative entre les femmes (2/3) et les hommes (1/3) a aussi été constatée à cette même université ainsi qu'à celle de l'Université du 3e âge de Berne.

Une amélioration des cours en formation par correspondance, un tutorat plus adéquat et une satisfaction plus grande des apprenants âgés devraient orienter les recherches ultérieures vers la découverte des motivations des personnes âgés en formation par correspondance. Aussi, compte tenu des difficultés inhérentes à ce mode de formation, il deviendrait important de connaître les obstacles qui nuisent à la poursuite de leurs études.

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# PERSONNES AGEES, APPRENTISSAGES EXPERIENTIELS ET CREATIVITE

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RESUME: Cette étude présente un profil de l'apprenant créateur âgé en comparant ses caractéristiques, compte tenu de certains changements cognitifs survenant lors du vieillissement, avec celles des apprentissages expérientiels et de la créativité. Le recours à l'expérience et à la pensée dialectique en ressort.

ABSTRACT: This study presents a profile of the older creative learner by comparing his characteristics, considering some cognitive changes associated with aging, with those of experiential learnings and creativity. Relying on previous experiences and on dialectical thinking are the main characteristics noted here.

## PROBLEMATIQUE

Il y a une attention grandissante en éducation des adultes, en particulier dans le domaine de la gérontologie éducative, pour les personnes âgées en rapport avec la créativité. Cette recherche se situe à la croisée des trois domaines de recherche: la gérontologie, l'éducation des adultes et la créativité. Elle s'intéresse au développement global et continu de la personne âgée par la prise de conscience de son potentiel créateur au moyen de méthodes projectives. Le but de la présente étude est de faire l'état de la question de ce qui se rapporte à la spécificité de l'apprenant créateur âgé afin d'associer ses caractéristiques à celles des apprentissages expérientiels et à celles de la créativité dans une perspective d'interrelation favorable à son développement. La créativité est définie ici selon les termes de Rogers: "la tendance de l'homme à s'actualiser et à devenir ce qui est potentiel en lui" (Rogers 1968 p.248). A cette définition se joignent les conditions internes de la créativité: 1) l'ouverture à l'expérience qui implique la possibilité de recevoir beaucoup d'information contradictoire sans se fermer à l'expérience; 2) un centre interne d'évaluation; 3) l'habilité de jouer avec les concepts: faire de nouvelles associations (Rogers 1968 p.250-51).

## METHODE

Il s'agit d'une étude théorique qui consiste en une recension des écrits qui permet une analyse critique et une synthèse des écrits actuels recensés portant sur la créativité en rapport avec les apprentissages expérientiels des personnes âgées.

Très peu d'études démontrent le lien entre personnes âgées et apprentissages expérientiels. Il en est de même lorsqu'il s'agit de relier personnes âgées et méthodes projectives considérées comme outils de croissance et non de mesure. C'est alors par le biais de leurs caractéristiques que sont ici reliés les trois concepts. Le choix des écrits recensés a donc été fait en fonction des critères suivant: 1) ils se rapportent aux caractéristiques des personnes âgées, des apprentissages expérientiels et de la créativité, incluant les méthodes projectives; 2) ils ont été publiés durant la dernière décennie car c'est depuis que sont produites des études plus approfondies, plus complètes et plus diversifiées.

C'est par l'examen de certains changements cognitifs survenant lors du vieillissement que les caractéristiques de l'apprenant âgé sont revelés avant de les relier d'abord aux apprentissages expérientiels et ensuite à la créativité incluant les méthodes projectives. Un profil de l'apprenant créateur âgé se dégage cette analyse.

Seule les changements cognitifs les plus pertinents relatifs aux apprentissages expérientiels ont été retenues ici. A noter également que l'expression méthodes projectives, lorsqu'elle est employée, réfère à la créativité et à la croissance de la personne et non à la mesure par tests projectifs.

## RESULTATS

### L'apprenant âgé et l'apprentissage expérientiel.

Plusieurs recherches montrent que les personnes âgées subissent, sur le plan cognitif, des changements qui influencent leur façon d'apprendre et de créer (Cavanaugh 1985; Alpaugh 1982; Hooper 1986). Ces changements révèlent généralement un déclin lorsque les personnes âgées sont comparées avec des personnes plus jeunes (Hooper 1986).

Mentionnons ici les changements les plus pertinents: la baisse de la mémoire à court terme, l'augmentation du temps nécessaire pour reconnaître de nouveaux apprentissages (Cavanaugh 1985); la baisse de performance dans l'utilisation du raisonnement formel (Hooper 1986) ce que Alpaugh (1986) nomme le ralentissement du traitement de l'information; la baisse de l'intelligence fluide (Alpaugh 1982).

Ces changements s'expliquent de façon plus positive lorsqu'ils sont examinés dans une perspective de développement continu. Ainsi, la baisse de mémoire à court terme est expliquée par le fait que la personne âgée n'a plus autant l'impression d'apprendre quelque chose de nouveau; son cadre de référence étant plus large, elle peut presque toujours rattacher l'information à quelque chose de connu ce qui cause l'augmentation du temps nécessaire pour reconnaître ses nouveaux apprentissages (Cavanaugh 1985). De plus, le ralentissement du traitement de l'information est souvent causé par la présence de trop de données disponibles (Hooper 1986). Selon Alpaugh (1982), la baisse de l'intelligence fluide se fait au profit de l'intelligence cristallisée qui repose davantage sur l'expérience acquise que sur la pensée divergente. De son côté, Cavanaugh (1985) avance que les opérations formelles ne suffisent plus à l'adulte âgé, il dépend de la pensée dialectique pour synthétiser les donnés contradictoires d'un monde complexe.

De cette courte énumération, on peut dégager au moins deux caractéristiques spécifiques à l'apprenant âgé. D'abord, le recours à l'expérience acquise qui joue un grand rôle dans son processus cognitif: elle modifie son degré de nouveauté perçue, lui donne un cadre de référence élargi, ralentit son traitement de l'information et nourrit son intelligence cristallisée. Ensuite, la présence de la pensée dialectique qui lui permet d'intégrer des perspectives multiples (Cavanaugh 1985).

Afin de savoir si les apprentissages expérientiels conviennent à l'apprenant âgé, il faut d'abord examiner leurs caractéristiques. Selon Walter et Marks (1981), l'apprentissage expérientiel nécessite l'implication active et totale des participants. Burnard (1988) ajoute qu'il s'agit d'une activité d'apprentissage qui facilite le développement de la connaissance expérientielle, laquelle se fait à travers une rencontre directe et personnelle avec un sujet, une personne ou une chose. Cette rencontre est de nature subjective, affective et idiosyncratique (Burnard 1988).

Considérant l'apprenant âgé, on peut relier son besoin de l'expérience à la nature même de l'apprentissage expérientiel. De plus, le caractère entier et global de ce type d'apprentissage semble convenir à sa capacité d'intégration que lui permet la pensée dialectique. Par son caractère d'expérience personelle, directe et concrète, on peut penser que l'apprentissage expérientiel convient à l'intelligence cristallisée de l'apprenant âgé. La connaissance expérientielle est une source de connaissances personelles qui se modifient à mesure que l'expérience de la vie se développe et change (Burnard 1988).

### L'apprenant âgé et la créativité.

La recherche en créativité dénombre également des changements qui indiquent un apparent déclin de la créativité chez les personnes âgées. Ainsi, le ralentissement général de la cognition peut être la cause de la baisse de la fluidité qui est la capacité de générer rapidement des idées nouvelles (Alpaugh, 1982). Une baisse du niveau de préférence pour la complexité a, aussi, été détectée chez les personnes âgées (Ruth et Birren, 1985).

Des explications positives ont été formulées par Alpaugh (1982) qui suggère que les personnes âgées ne reposent plus, dans les mêmes proportions, sur les mêmes habiletés cognitives soulignant ainsi le plus grand rôle de l'inlelligence cristallisée durant le processus créateur et déduisant que les créateurs âgés dépendent donc, eux aussi, davantage de leur expérience acquise. Une réserve de connaissances, acquises par la pensée divergente permet au créateur âgé de faire des associations rares et des transformations astucieuses de l'information et de l'expérience (Alpaugh, 1982).

Ces changements montrent des modifications quant au processus créateur. Toutefois, lorsque l'adulte âgé est placé face à la créativité comprise comme une tendance à s'actualiser, ces changements peuvent lui indiquer son nouveau potentiel. Un sentiment de croissance personnelle, un sens de l'intégration du soi et un besoin d'expression de soi apparaissent avec la maturité (Dohr et Forbes, 1986). La pratique de la créativité doit, cependant, être encouragée. Chez les personnes âgées qui s'adonnent à des activités artistiques, on retrouve un plus grand désir de croissance (Dohr et Forbes, 1986). Il semble donc possible que l'apprenant âgé réalise des apprentissages sur soi et des expériences de croissance par l'utilisation de méthodes de créativité étant donné son recours à l'expérience dans son processus créateur et sa capacité d'intégration que lui permet la pensé dialectique.

### Le profil de l'apprenant créateur âgé.

De cette analyse ressort un profil de l'apprenant créateur âgé. D'abord, sa marche vers la maturité lui amène un goût plus grand pour la croissance personnelle et une augmentation du sens de l'intégration du soi(Dohr et Forbes, 1986). Ensuite, l'importance de l'expérience s'est imposée pour décrire un penseur et un créateur ayant une réserve abondante de connaissances personnelles, un processus de traitement des informations ralenti et une capacité nouvelle d'associer des ideés et des expériences. Son besoin de reposer sur l'expérience le rend particulièrement apte à l'apprentissage expérientiel, lequel propose une exprience totale, directe, subjective et personnelle. Ce genre d'expérience convient à la pensée dialectique qui caractérise aussi l'apprenant âgé lui permettant de synthétiser les contracdictions et d'intégrer en un tout gérable les perspectives multiples, le gardant ainsi ouvert à l'expérience.

L'apprenant créateur âgé est donc une personne qui a une forte tendance à s'actualiser, qui a la nécessité de passer par l'expérience acquise pour apprendre et créer et qui a la capacité de percevoir de façon synthétique.

Les méthodes de créativité qui entrainent une expérience de soi en lui permettant de connaître son potentiel semblent appropriées à cette personne. Dans cette perspective, les méthodes projectives orientées vers la créativité, tel le dessin à partir de tâches de couleur, qui demandent l'utilisation de la projection et de l'interprétation peuvent être un outil de connaissance. Ainsi que le rapporte Ansbacher(1982), la caractéristique d'une méthode projective est qu'une personne donne un rapport conscient d'une perception ou d'un souvenir et ce faisant, dévoile des aspects de sa personnalité jusque-là inconnus (Ansbacher, 1982). Ils'agit d'une expérience directe, personnelle et intime de connaissance de soi. Les méthodes projectives pourraient donc être des agents d'apprentissages expérientiels favorisant le développement de l'apprenant créateur.

Ce champ de recherche est encore neuf. Il est essentiel que des études soient faites pour explorer la relation entre les personnes âgées et les méthodes projectives, d'abord pour évaluer leur capacité de projection, c'est-à-dire, leur capacité à rencontrer leur contenus intérieurs, ensuite, leur possibilité d'utiliser la projection comme agent d'apprentissage et de développement doit être mesurée. De plus, il faut vérifier si le type d'expériences reconnu dans les apprentissages expérientiels est le même que celui rencontré dans les méthodes projectives lorsque les sujets sont des personnes âgés.Les resultats de ces explorations pourraient influencer l'intervention auprès des personnes âgées.

En somme, cette tentative de relier les caractéristiques de l'apprenant âgé, des apprentissages expérientiels et de la créativité incluant les méthodes projectives permet d'entrevoir une parenté théorique entre elles: l'importance de l'expérience et de la pensée dialectique dans l'actualisation de soi. La gérontologie éducative devrait se pencher sur ce lien.

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# DOING WHAT IS POSSIBLE: INDIVIDUAL ACTION, SOCIAL STRUCTURE AND EDUCATIONAL TRANSFORMATION

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**ABSTRACT:** A review of feminist critiques of education is presented employing Gramsci's concept of hegemony and Giddens' concepts of agency and structure. The analysis indicates historical changes in feminists perspective of women's agency and the function of education and concludes with directions for future research on feminist practice and educational transformation.

Cette analyse des critiques féministe de l'éducation utilise les idées de l'hégémonie, de l'agence et de la structure, dans les sens leur donnes par Gramsci et Giddens. Elle indique les changements historiques dans la perspective de l'agence féminine et de la fonction de l'éducation et finit en suggerant des directions pour la recherche future sur la pratique féministe et sur le changement d'éducation.

**INTRODUCTION:** In this paper I present an analysis of feminist perspectives of education for the purpose of informing the study of feminist practice and educational transformation. The standpoint of this inquiry is that an exploration of feminist perspectives of education, and research into the realities of feminist practice, provide important insights into understanding the complexities of educational transformation. This analysis begins with a review of several sensitizing concepts organizing this analysis which have emerged from Gramsci's and Giddens' sociological and political theorizing about social change.

Gramsci's work (1971) has provided understanding of the character of advanced capitalistic societies and the nature of education for social transformation within such societies. His explorations of the ability of these modern states to govern and rule by "spontaneous consent" led him to articulate the notion of hegemony. He defined hegemony as the exercise of political, cultural and economic influence of one class over other classes. This influence is exercised not through force or coercion, but through the development and promotion of ideologies that act as a "social cement". He also asserted that hegemony is never complete, that is, it is always being reimposed and resisted.

Another important contribution of Gramsci was his discussion regarding the nature of consciousness and the function of intellectuals and education, in relation to hegemony and transformation. Gramsci believed that consciousness was shaped by hegemonic ideas and historical circumstances, but he also argued that individual consciousness is also capable of self-critique which allowed for the possibility of counter-hegemonic activities and social transformation. Gramsci regarded all people as intellectuals, in that they think, mediate and adhere to a specific view of the world but, he also argued that all people do not function as intellectuals.. He called for education to be counter-hegemonic in order to " ... produce elites of intellectuals of a new type which arise directly out of the masses, but remain in contact with them" (p. 340). These "intellectuals of a new type" Gramsci called organic intellectuals who had an understanding of the common sense world and how historical and economic forces have shaped it. Worker education, in Gramsci's view, played a key role in the creation of organic intellectuals. This education allowed for the learning of both the technical aspects of work as well as its political and cultural implications.

Writing over sixty years later, Giddens (1984) has also contributed to our understanding of the reproduction and transformation of advanced capitalistic societies. His theory of structuration countered what he believed to be the prevailing perspective in sociology in which structure is viewed as the determining factor in social reproduction with little consideration of agency. He proposed an alternative view (the duality of structure) in which he argued that ... "the rules and resources drawn upon in the production and reproduction of social action are at the same time the means of system reproduction (p. 19)".

In his analysis of social reproduction and social action, Giddens emphasized agents' knowledgeability which he defined as the capacity for actors to continually monitor the flow of their activities and the social and physical aspects of the contexts in which they move. He regarded structure as the rules and resources recursively implicated in social reproduction and social action and argued that structure was both enabling and constraining. He viewed power as simply the means of getting things done. "Power is never merely constraint but is at the very origin of the capabilities of agents to bring about intended outcomes of action (p. 173)."

**ANALYSIS:** Given this brief overview of the notions of hegemony, agency, and structure, I will now turn to considering feminist perspectives of education. It is evident that they have changed over time in relation to the perspective of women's agency and of educational structures, reflecting the historical circumstances in which they emerged. Pierson (1987) argues that this change also reflects an increasing radicalization which is related to "... an increasing awareness of the fundamentally gendered nature of society and an increasingly severe critique of the implications of that gendering for human society in its entirety" (p. 203).

I will begin by referring to developments which emerged prior to this century and the second wave of the women's movement. Mary Astell (1970), writing at the turn of the 17th century and frequently cited as providing one of the first published feminist critiques of education, stated that women equalled men in intellect and called for the creation of an institute of higher learning where a woman could become "a mistress of her rational soul". A century later Mary Wollstonecraft (1967) continued along similar lines, arguing that education would allow women to become equal to men and autonomous in their decision making. The debate was renewed during the 1820's when a radical feminist voice emerged from the Owenite socialists calling for female self-determination, education for women and marital equality.

These early developments in feminist perspectives of education centred around the argument that women equalled men in intellectual capabilities. Women were viewed as knowledgeable agents and equal access to education was considered as a major liberating force but, there was limited understanding of the hegemonic nature of patriarchy and of the social construction of gender.

Virgnia Woolf (1945), writing during the early part of this century, represents one of the first feminists to articulate the notion of patriarchy and how it was deeply embedded in society, particularly within its educational institutions. Rather than simply call for equal access, she envisioned an alternative education for women where they would be taught the "arts of human intercourse." Woolf's view of women as knowledgeable agents and her understanding of how education was deeply embedded in patriarchy, was a preview of the more critical and radical feminist critiques of education which developed during the second wave of feminism. In the last few decades, the analyses have focused on schools within the larger social context, in particular, the relationship between gender, education and work in capitalist societies. This work has identified schools' central role in the social construction of gender and has expanded the concept of hegemony to include the notion of gender as well as class (Deem, 1980, Wolpe, 1981, Arnot, 1982, Kelly & Nihlen, 1982). At the same time, however, the emphasis has been on women as powerless victims and the determinant and constraining character of structures.

Within the last decade feminist scholarship has struggled with the tension between expanding the critique of education to include the notion of women's agency, and continuing to enlarge our understanding of hegemony of the sex-gender system of patriarchy. One of the themes of this research has been the ways in which girls and women resist the dominant forces within schools and society. These researchers have questioned the perspective that ideology is complete and uncontested and the notion that girls and women are passively socialized to accept the dominant ideology of sexism (McRobbie, 1978, Thomas, 1980, Fuller, 1980, Anyon, 1984, and Gaskell, 1985). Instead, the knowledgeability of girls and women and their roles as agents who negotiate among contradictory messages has bee highlighted. The research on resistance has also acknowledged and validated the necessity of listening to girl's and women's own stories in order to explore the realities of women's strengths and agency. This theoretical and methodological stance reflects a central theme in the women's movement regarding the importance of women's consciousness as representing an oppositional space where visions of change can emerge. This perspective is similar to Gramsci's view of the anticipatory function of consciousness in relation to social transformation.

The research on resistance reflects a shift away from a static and all-powerful notion of hegemony, to consider its contested and incomplete nature. Most of this research, however, continues to consider the relationship between agency and structure as oppositional, rather than dialectical. For the most part, structure is still viewed as determinant and constraining, and the notion of agency is still limited to exploring individual, rather than collective, activity.

Exploring the relationship between agency and structure, between capitalism and patriarchy, will continue to be a major theme throughout feminist research agendas. "The complex of gender inequality and patriarchal ideology is not a smoothly functioning machine. It is a mass of tensions, contradictions, and complexities that always have the potential for change (Kessler et al, 1985)." Efforts have been made to present an expanded and contextualized view of agency as problematic and contradictory. "Research needs to present women as neither passive victims nor heroic superwomen who can remake the world as an act of will. The notion of contextualized action, always socially situated, always problematic, must guide and inform our research (Gaskell, 1987, p. 387)." Two recent works are significant in their empirical contributions which make visible these tensions and contradictions and the "contextualized action" of feminist educators who work toward change. They have taken as their starting point the counter-hegemonic potential of feminist work and represent a different approach to studying resistance.

Lather (1983) examined the impact of feminism on the curriculum of teacher education and argued that there is a general lack of awareness of the richness of women's "culture of resistance". She viewed teacher education as an important "historical laboratory " for establishing a counter-hegemonic praxis and proposed that the curriculum become the focus of the feminist struggle in teacher education. She also called for a feminist restructuring of the work lives of teachers, a restructuring that gives them a new public dignity. By incorporating the principle of consciousness raising, Lather's work represents another important development in feminist research methodology. Part of her research design included sharing her data with her subjects and asking them whether this information and the research process had expanded their awareness and whether it had been useful in their practice.

Weiler (1988) explored the counter-hegemonic praxis of feminist public school teachers and viewed such practice as important, but problematic work, because it was always being constructed by human beings within a web of power and material constraints. She called for an expanded view of agency as critical, politicized and organized around a conscious collective of oppositional actions. Weiler's research provides a rich description of feminist practice within public schools and speaks to the enabling and constraining characteristics of structure. However, her methodology and description focuses on individual praxis and is limited in its analysis of the relationship between individual praxis and a larger feminist collective.

CONCLUSION: This analysis indicates several important directions for further study of feminist practice and its role in educational transformation. Only a few salient points will be mentioned here. Further research should continue to examine the dialectical relationship between agency and structure by exploring agents' knowledgeability and the connections between specific contexts of action and wider features of institutional practices. In particular, further research should address the relationship between the agency of individual feminist practitioners and the larger collective of the women's movement. Finally, rather than compare feminists' work to a pre-determined definition of counter-hegemonic practice, further research should consider feminist practice as "contextualized action"- and explore the strategies which have been worked out practically in relation to specific situations.

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# CONNECTIONS BETWEEN INDIVIDUAL AND WORLD PEACE

**The CASAE Peace Group (1988-89), O.I.S.E., Toronto**

**Bill Fallis(Chair) with Betty Donaldson, Rose Dyson and Kate Freeman**

*Cette session présente la synthèse des informations que nous avons partagées et des associations que nour avons faites durant nos activités dans le courant de l'années passées. Nous présentons trois sujets:*

*-Une définition canadienne de la paix: Les directions futures,*
*-La violence dans les média, et*
*-Un esprit global: Le dévoppement d'une nouvelle conscience de la paix.*

*Nous présentons aussi des réponses qui démontrent les liens entre la paix au niveau de l'individu et la paix à l'échelle mondiale.*

This session synthesizes the information shared and associations formed through our activities this past year. Three presentations are made on the following topics:

Canadians Define Peace: Future Directions (Betty Donaldson)
Violence in the Media (Rose Dyson)
Global Brain: Developing a New Peace Consciousness (Kate Freeman).

The topics are related to the question, "How does our understanding of this information further our capacity as individuals to live peacefully in this world?" The presenters provide reponses that demonstrate the connections between peace within individuals and peace throughout the world.

## CANADIANS DEFINE PEACE: FUTURE DIRECTIONS

Elizabeth (Betty) Donaldson, Ph.D. Candidate,
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The Twentieth Century, in spite of all its manifestions of destructive warfare, has also been a period of time during which individuals have begun to organize for peace. Many peoples have gradually realized that peace is more than an absence of war and that the multi-faceted definitions of peace permeate the multi-levels of existence, but too often there is an uncertain vision of an uncertain future and a confusion about goals. Definitions of peace vary by individual, by culture and by country, nevertheless, in every continent, networks of organizations are increasingly sharing experiences and information about what it would be like to live in a more peaceful world.

Peace as an ideal transcends time and most cultures since it evokes an image of a better future than the conflicts with which we live. If we are to realize the ideal and to make it more a part of our present, clarifying our definitions will help us to reach the goal. This paper explores some of the ways in which various groups of Canadians define peace with the expectation that some future directions for peace at home will emerge. In doing so, we may offer some leadership to the rest of the world while obtaining a greater understanding of how another aspect of diversity within Canadian society is manifested. Examples of eight sectors of our society are included: education, environment, religion, interpersonal and family relationships, the women's movement, the military, the tourism industry and government.

The peace education movement in Canada gained momentum during the 1960s and 1970s at all three levels of education. At the primary level examinations of the socialization patterns of children indicate that they are "ready by the age of 11 or 12 to consider alternative models of blobal political futures" (Ehly, 1975, p.79). At the secondary level the momentum has not been sustained because of the lack of "neat, coherent packages suitable for classroom use" (Friesen, 1988,49). At the post-secondary level, "crossing of disciplinary lines was to become a distinctive characteristic of peace studies" (Speier, 1988, p.7).

One of the early developments within the movement was a linkage with environmental concerns, also a new area of study. "We learn skills to survive. We learn to control the forces of nature. We learn about things which contribute to making the world a congenial place to inhabit - not forgetting (which we often do) the other species who share this planet with us", however, we are just beginning to learn how to manage the powerful technological forces we have at our disposal (Oliver, 1987, p.11).

In the more intimate aspects of our lives, religion, intra and interpersonal relationships, the connections with peace as being something more than an absence of war, has been long recognized but difficult to translate into action (Bibby, 1988).

Much more articulate have been the voices of women and of the military (Donaldson, 1988). The peace movement has been a primary focus of the women's movement in Canada and this momentum is sustained throughout the country by thousands of volunteers of all ages. Canadian military has also been a consistent participant in the United Nation Peacekeeping efforts, but this aspect of the armed forces has only recently been highlighted (Gaffen, 1987).

Tourism is now the largest industry in the world and the influence that related commercial ventures might have upon sustaining and promoting peace was explored last Fall at an international conference in Vancouver (Tourism: A Vital Force for Peace, 1988).

"Peace, order and good government" was what the Fathers of Conferdation envisioned for the Dominion of Canada. And, despite eruptions of violent incidences, our country is generally regarded by inhabitants of other nations as a safe, stable place in which to live. Our commitment to multi-culturalism is forcing us, however, to reassess how we articulate this value to new immigrants and apply it so that we may retain our goal of as much diversity without violence as it possible (Speech from the Throne, 1989).

In 122 years, Canada has never had a civil war, never known military invasion, and never suffered nation-wide natural disasters. Without attempting to whitewash the past which contains inequities, or to glorify the present which contains injustices, the history of the Canadian nation is one to which its citizens can point with quiet pride. With some clarification of our goals, we should be able to develop future directions that assist us to transmit our heritage and be model global citizens.

## VIOLENCE IN THE MEDIA

Rose Dyson, Ed.D. Candidate, Department of Adult Education, O.I.S.E.

The purpose of this presentation is to focus attention on the proliferation of media violence as it relates to forms of entertainment. These forms include print, television, film, video and rock music. Military toys and team sports also need to be considered as these are reinforced by the visual and print media as symbolic socializers which mitigate shifts in global consciousness toward peace and well-being.

In reviewing the research specific attention has been paid to the Ontario Government's Royal Commission on Violence in the Communications Industry within the context of the Commission's approaches, conclusions and recommendations. Released in 1977, this report was the first and last major study of its kind in Canada and had as its mandate, an examination of the communications industry throughout the country. Because the American Communications Industry automatically considers Canada to be part of its domestic market, an examination of current trends throughout both Canada and the United States seemed essential in approaching this topic. These findings have since been considered against the backdrop of research updates through a review of American bimonthly news bulletins published from 1982 to the present, by the National Coalition on Television Violence (NCTV) chaired by psychiatrist Tom Radecki, as well as from other, more recently published sources.

The proliferation of violent forms of entertainment, reinforced and fostered by the media, has been traced to conflicting ideological views on social and political organization with economic priorities overtaking human needs. The implications of these views invite an adult educative response to the competing interests which mitigate shifts in social consciousness toward global, societal and human well-being.

There is mounting evidence from over three decades of research, including a U.S. Surgeon General's report, that violence in media entertainment is a growing mental health problem. The overwhelming majority of findings point toward harmful effects. On television violence alone, the NCTV reserach centre has over 1,000 studies on record. As the methodology grows in sophistication, so does the evidence of harmful effects.

In Ontario, concern has recently surfaced over inadequate definitions in the existing Criminal Code for pornography. This was the reason cited by Judge Hogg in March of this year, for discharging two video firms charged with distributing obscene and violent material. Increasingly lenient classification standards for films and videos many of which are pornographic has meant that some films which several years ago would have been classified as "Restricted" are now moving into the "Adult Accompaniment" category in order for the distributors to capitalize on the lucrative teen market.

These trends prompted the co-ordination of a public meeting at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education which took place on March 30, 1989. Several recommendations were endorsed, which were prefaced with the following conclusion from the 1977 Ontario Royal Commission Report.

> If the amount of depicted violence that exists in the North American intellectual environment could be expressed in terms of a potentially dangerous food or drug additive, an air or water pollutant such as lead or asbestos or mercury, or other hazard to humans, there is little doubt that society would have demanded a stop to it, as society has done in denouncing hazards that are directly measurable in terms of physical illness or death (p. 50).

These recommendations from the meeting demonstrate the growing support at policy making levels for health promotion and respect for the environment both biologically and socially. Similarly, they underscore objectives for global peace and social justice.

## GLOBAL BRAIN: DEVELOPING A NEW PEACE CONSCIOUSNESS

Kate Freeman, Ed.D. Candidate, Department of Adult Education, O.I.S.E., Toronto

Peace education is an activity of changing awarenesses, re-shaping consciousness. As part of our lunch time peace series this year, we included two audiovisual presentations which focussed on shifting awarenesses from 'I-ness' to 'we-ness', from autonomy and separateness to interdependence and linked-ness. One of these, which is entitled "The Global Brain" (Russell, 1983) is available for interested viewers at this conference.

The first of these two sessions focussed on the content of the "The Global Brain," which suggests that the greatest reason for violence to the environment and others comes from the fact that we perceive the world and others as separate from ourselves. Consequently we often end up misusing others and the earth to feed our own limited sense of identity. This image stresses the need for accomplishing a 'paradigm shift', in which we begin to move toward greater global integration, from what it terms 'skin-encapsulated egos' to 'leaky margins'! This video briefly traces an evolutionary history of humans, and suggests that perhaps this shift towards awareness of our global village, our interconnectedness with other living things is coming and that it's approach is an indication that we are reaching a new stage of integration, a new maturity of the species.

The second session involved an audiovisual presentation by Peter Chisholm (Doctoral Student in the Applied Psychology Department, O.I.S.E.), which was designed to foster the kind of paradigm shift referred to in "The Global Brain." Experiential in nature, this presentation used images such as the world seen from space and human faces of all ages and races, accompanied by classical music and limited text to help viewers strengthen a sense of interconnectedness with others and the earth.

Some of the ideas presented in these audiovisuals are discussed with relation to the question of how our knowledge of this new consciousness facilitates our capacity as individuals to live peacefully in the world.

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# CONTEXTE ET CONTEXTUALISATION, DEUX NOTIONS FONDAMENTALES POUR LA COMPREHENSION DE L'APPRENTISSAGE ADULTE.

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**Les notions traditionnelles de stimulus et de comportement se sont avérées insatisfaisantes pour expliquer les phénomènes complexes liés au processus d'apprentissage. Le courant contextualiste propose d'envisager la notion de stimulus en rapport avec celle de contexte. La contextualisation, qui consiste en une réorganisation de l'information externe à partir de données internes a été étudiée auprés de visiteurs de musée. L'observation de l'expérience intérieure de ces adultes a permis d'illustrer ce phénomène et d'en saisir les principaux rôles lorsque l'individu tente de donner un sens à l'objet ou à l'événement.**

**The traditional notions of stimulus and behavior failed to explain the complex phenomenons related to the learning process. The contextualist paradigm propose to see the notion of stimulus in regard of that of context. A study of the contextualization process which consists in a reorganization of the external information on the basis of internal aspects have been undertaken with museum's visitors. The observation of the experience of these adults had lead to illustrate this phenomenon and to identify its roles in the shaping of meaning.**

En éducation, on s'est longtemps appuyé (on s'appuie encore) sur les notions de stimulus et de comportement pour comprendre , organiser et évaluer les apprentissages.

Les notions de contexte et de contextualisation (construction mentale d'un contexte) viennent bousculer notre façon de concevoir ces aspects de l'apprentissage.

Dans la perspective behavioriste, stimulus et comportement se définissent mutuellement. Le stimulus est une unité d'information environnementale isolée ayant comme caractéristique la propriété de provoquer, voire de déterminer le contenu, la forme et la valeur du comportement. Le comportement, pour sa part, se définit alors simplement comme la réponse ou la réaction au stimulus. Ainsi conçoit-on d'une part une unité d'information ou "objet local" et d'autre part la personne comme étant des entités séparées, intactes et indépendantes au départ. La manipulation de la première détermine la réaction de la seconde. Dans cette perspective, les programmes, les outils pédagogiques, la matière elle-même deviennent la clé maîtresse de tout apprentissage et la pédagogie, l'art de les manipuler.
Mais des années de gloire du behaviorisme à nos jours, le concept de comportement a peu à peu cédé la place d'honneur au concept de connaissance et la notion de stimulus s'est trouvée plongée dans une véritable crise d'identité.

Une conception du stimulus et du comportement ayant un degré de spécificité si élevé et s'imbriquant dans un schéma d'interaction réductionniste s'avère de peu d'utilité pour rendre compte des phénomènes complexes liés à l'apprentissage (Tiberghien 1985). Pour plusieurs auteurs, particulièrement dans le domaine de la communication, "La complexité de la moindre situation d'interaction est telle qu'il est vain de vouloir la réduire à deux ou plusieurs "variables" travaillant de façon linéaire. " (Birdwhistell et Scheflen, dans Bateson et al,1981,p.25) Le découpage dichotomique rigide de la réalité recherché par les behavioristes s'est finalement avéré inadéquat et stérile. Ce constat a favorisé l'éclosion d'un intérêt de plus en plus étendu pour la notion de contexte (Tiberghien 1985). Le courant contextualiste est venu éclairer et élargir cette notion . Du coup, on ne peut plus définir la notion de stimulus uniquement par rapport au comportement; c'est par rapport au contexte qu'il faut maintenant l'envisager.

D'une certaine façon, tout appartient à un contexte global: l'événement. La force de stimulation des éléments se différencie au moment où l'attention, qui flottait librement, s'attache à un aspect particulier. La valeur de stimulation de toute chose dépend de la force du champ magnétique qui s'établit entre cette chose et la personne.

Si le stimulus est comme le dit Tiberghien (1985) "ce qui, à un moment donné et pour une personne donnée est psychologiquement efficace", alors la question qui se pose est la suivante: qu'est-ce qui détermine ce qui est efficace pour une personne, ou si l'on préfère, qu'est-ce qui , pour elle, a le plus grand pouvoir de stimulation et selon quels critères?

Traditionnellement, la définition de ce qui est stimulus et de ce qui est contexte dans une situation donnée était le fait de l'expérimentateur (Davies 1986) . Et l'efficacité du stimulus dépendait de son pouvoir de susciter chez le sujet le comportement attendu, défini également par l'expérimentateur. Or il est maintenant largement admis que stimulus et contexte ne sont pas des catégories ontologiques indépendantes que l'on peut opposer, et que l'individu est un facteur hautement déterminant de ce qui a valeur de stimulus pour lui. (Mishler,1979; Sarbin,1976; Bateson et al,1981). Une définition du contexte doit donc inclure à la fois des aspects internes à l'individu et des aspects externes à celui-ci, qui tous participent de l'événement, y jouent un rôle actif bien qu'à des degrés différents et varient d'un moment à l'autre.
Dès lors, le chercheur ne peut plus compter déterminer a priori et de façon péremptoire ce qui sera le stimulus et le contexte. C'est au fur et à mesure que l'événement se déroule que la valeur de stimulation pourra être attribuée à un aspect ou à un autre du contexte global, selon ce qui compte pour le sujet à ce moment précis.

Partant d'une conception d'abord grossière de la notion de contexte souvent réduite à la notion d'environnement physique ou matériel, on a d'abord cherché à voir l'impact du contexte externe sur la compréhension, le comportement, la performance. Mais, peu à peu, la notion de contexte s'élargissant et se précisant, l'attention s'est de plus en plus déplacée vers l'information contextuelle interne, à savoir, les représentations sémantiques que l'individu construit pour donner un sens au monde qui l'entoure. Désormais, comprendre le fonctionnement de l'individu c'est comprendre comment il contextualise mentalement chaque chose, chaque situation.

La contextualisation est une activité naturelle fondamentale. Tout organisme vivant a besoin d'être en contact de façon sélective avec son environnement afin de ne pas être submergé par la multitude des sensations. L'organisme développe donc une sensibilité à certains aspects de son environnement et tend à réduire ses représentations en domaines familiers (Mc Guire 1986). Il y a donc sélection mais aussi réorganisation des données et des relations en représentation cohérente et familière , et ceci apparaît à tous les échelons de l'activité humaine, de l'activité biologique à l'activité affective et intellectuelle. Il y a donc toujours transformation et recodage, décontextualisation et recontextualisation de l'événement. (Arnheim 1969; Bateson,1977-80; Bransford et al, 1977; Ehrlich,1985; Hester,1977; Jenkins,1974).

Comment s'effectue la contextualisation? L'exploration de l'expérience intérieure d'adultes lors d'une visite au musée a permis d'illustrer le processus de contextualisation et de découvrir son rôle dans une démarche d'exploration et d'apprentissage libre. Nous avons recueilli les verbalisations spontanées de 45 adultes durant leur visite d'une exposition de coquillages située dans un musée de sciences naturelles, ainsi que leurs commentaires lors d'une entrevue semi-dirigée suite à cette visite. Les exhibits ont été conçus de façon à ne livrer qu'un strict minimum d'information: les coquillages sont disposés sur un fond bleu uni, sans autre accompagnement qu'une étiquette indiquant le nom commun, le nom scientifique, la famille d'appartenance et l'aire de distribution géographique de chacun. Aucun autre indice contextuel n'est fourni. Devant un tel dépouillement, le visiteur réagit et son travail de contextualisation peut être mis en lumière.

L'analyse qualitative du matériel ainsi recueilli révèle que la contextualisation débouche sur toute une gamme de contextes variés . Contrairement aux croyances et aux attentes de bon nombre de muséologues, l'activité mentale du visiteur ne ressemble en rien à une mémorisation des éléments tels qu'ils sont présentés dans l'exhibit et ne consiste pas non plus uniquement en une reconstitution aussi fidèle que possible du contexte d'origine de l'objet.

La visite au musée est conçue de façon générale comme une communication entre le muséologue (expert qui traduit le message "contenu" dans l'objet) et le visiteur (récepteur du message). (Borun et Miller,1980; Cameron, 1967; Screven, 1969-1974; Scrutton,1969; Shettel,1973). Or ce n'est pas là la perception générale des visiteurs. Au contraire, ceux-ci ne manquent pas de ressources pour recadrer l'objet selon leur propre système de références et lui attribuer un sens. Et ce sens prend des formes et des saveurs très variées selon les personnes.

Les contextes créés par les visiteurs sont d'une certaine façon uniques comme leurs auteurs. Cependant, il est possible de les regrouper selon certaines caractéristiques communes. Nous avons identifié sept types de contextes construits par les visiteurs.

La personne cherche parfois à établir une sorte de "carte d'identité" de l'objet: le reconnaître, lui trouver une ressemblance avec un objet connu, le nommer, le localiser, l'approcher sous différents angles: nature, constitution, fonctionnement etc.

L'individu peut aussi tenter de se faire une image plausible du milieu naturel ou contexte d'origine de l'objet, des éléments qui composent ce décor et surtout des rapports qui existent entre l'objet et ce milieu.

La personne qui cerne les différents usages que les humains ou lui-même peuvent faire de l'objet construit une sorte de contexte d'utilité.

Il est fréquent de voir un visiteur construire un contexte d'ambiance caractérisé par une connotation sensuelle. Ce genre de contexte renvoie à des paysages, des moments, des sensations que le visiteur associe à l'eau par exemple: bord de mer, soleil, vacances, exotisme, chaleur, etc. La personne crée ainsi une atmosphère souvent propice à la poursuite du contact avec l'objet.

Souvent aussi, le visiteur se "raconte une histoire" en élaborant des scénario mettant en scène des personnages plus ou moins familiers ou faisant interagir des personnages et lui-même ou lui-même et l'objet. Ces contextes d'interaction sont parfois construits à partir de souvenirs ou de reportages déjà vus ou sont entièrement inventés dans une sorte de rêverie.

Le visiteur crée aussi une sorte d'aura émotionnelle autour de l'objet. Les émotions ressenties sur le moment ou par le passé enveloppent et caractérisent fortement le contact avec l'objet.

Enfin, le contexte symbolique révèle le sens profond et intime que la personne attache à l'univers qu'elle associe à l'objet. Il s'agit alors de réflexions souvent philosophiques ayant une portée personnelle ou plus universelle.

La diversité des contextes produits permet de croire que la contextualisation joue plusieurs rôles et que ceux-ci diffèrent selon le visiteur, ses attentes, ses intérêts, ses connaissances et ses sensibilités. L'importance que le visiteur accorde à l'objet, au contexte fourni par le muséologue et aux contextes qu'il construit lui-même varie également selon les mêmes critères. La contextualisation peut avoir des finalités tout autres que celles que le muséologue prévoit. Recueillir des informations nouvelles ou vérifier ses connaissances actuelles ne sont pas les seuls buts que le visiteur vise et ne sont pas non plus les seules voies qui mènent à l'attribution d'un sens à l'objet. Un des rôles les plus observés de la contextualisation est de rendre l'objet familier, c'est-à-dire, de le situer dans son univers personnel, dans ses propres schèmes conceptuels, bref de lui trouver une place dans son petit "musée intérieur". La contextualisation permet aussi de transcender l'objet et la sensation première du contact pour propulser la pensée vers de nouveaux contextes à explorer. La contextualisation est également un moyen de se mettre en contact avec soi, avec ses émotions, de sentir à quoi l'on vibre: un visiteur confie:"Ca me parle parce que je me projette là-dedans". C'est donc un moyen d'aller à la rencontre de soi dans l'objet.

On se rend compte finalement que si la contextualisation est fonction de la syntonisation (réglage de la résonnance) de la personne à la situation, on constate en retour que la contextualisation peut s'avérer essentielle pour conserver et préciser cette syntonie. La contextualisation est un phénomène qui mérite une attention particulière des chercheurs et des éducateurs, car bien plus que la notion de stimulus présentée dans la perspective behavioriste, elle semble être la clé maîtresse de la compréhension du processus d'apprentissage.

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# ESSAI D'OPERATIONNALISATION DU SAVOIR-APPRENDRE CHEZ L'ADULTE DANS LE CONTEXTE DU MODELE D'APPRENTISSAGE EXPERIENTIEL DE KOLB

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RESUME: Nous présentons ici une amorce d'opérationnalisation des quatre étapes du modèle d'apprentissage de Kolb. Enrichi par l'approche cognitiviste, le modèle peut être utilisé comme outil pour 1) étudier le savoir-apprendre chez l'apprenant adulte et 2) favoriser l'articulation théorie/pratique dans la formation des maîtres et des formateurs.

This paper is an attempt at operationalizing Kolb's four stage experiential learning model into operations and corresponding abilities. Enriched by the cognitive approach, the model can be used as a tool 1) to investigate the "learning how to learn" concept with adult learners, and 2) foster the link between theory and practice in the training of future teachers and trainers.

Savoir-apprendre est une habileté générale qui renvoie à différentes réalités: 1) maîtrise des processus de prise et de traitement d'information (Brundage & MacKeracher, 1980), 2) connaissance des méthodes d'étude et habiletés de base telles la lecture et l'écriture (Apps, 1978), 3) capacité de gérer un projet d'apprentissage (Tough, 1978), 4) fonctionnement efficace en groupe de travail (Bergevin, 1967), 5) être autonome et auto-dirigé (Knowles, 1975). Poser la question du savoir-apprendre chez l'adulte revient donc à définir les concepts propres à chacun de ces niveaux de fonctionnement et à chercher des moyens de les développer. Notre intérêt porte essentiellement sur le premier niveau, celui des processus de traitement d'information en situation d'apprentissage, niveau auquel très peu d'importance a été accordée en éducation des adultes.

Dans ce contexte, on fait souvent mention de conduites d'apprentissage spécifiques (Smith, 1982; Cunningham, 1983). Toutefois, ces dernières gagneraient à être enchassées dans un cadre qui permettrait, au sein d'une démarche d'apprentissage, d'en distinguer le rôle et l'importance. Nous croyons que le modèle d'apprentissage expérientiel de Kolb (1984) offre un tel cadre intégrateur. En effet, celui-ci comprend des étapes à l'intérieur desquelles on retrouve des opérations à effectuer (Kolb 1974, 1984). Pour chacune de ces opérations, on peut définir des habiletés requises, propices à la réalisation optimale de la phase. L'opérationnalisation du modèle d'apprentissage expérientiel permettrait d'articuler une définition plus explicite du savoir-apprendre adulte. Toutefois, le problème principal est l'absence de description claire des habiletés définissant le savoir-apprendre d'un apprenant adulte.

Cet exposé se propose donc de résumer et d'enrichir le modèle de Kolb en explicitant les habiletés jugées essentielles à la réalisation de chacune des étapes du modèle et de montrer sa pertinence dans la formation des maîtres.

## L'APPRENTISSAGE EXPERIENTIEL COMME DEMARCHE D'APPRENTISSAGE

La préoccupation croissante de la transformation des expériences de l'apprenant en savoirs a donné naissance à un courant éducatif innovateur nommé apprentissage expérientiel. D'une façon générale, cette expression renvoie à tout apprentissage dans lequel l'apprenant est directement en contact avec les réalités qu'il étudie (Keeton, 1978). On lui attribue principalement trois sens: 1) un processus psychologique d'apprentissage (Coleman, 1977; Kolb, 1984), 2) une approche ou un modèle pédagogique (Pfeiffer et Jones, 1981), 3) le produit d'une démarche d'apprentissage expérientielle (Thomas, 1988). C'est le premier sens qui retient notre attention ici.

Kolb (1984) décrit l'apprentissage comme le processus dans lequel le savoir est généré à travers la transformation de l'expérience. Ce processus se réalise essentiellement selon quatre étapes qui se répètent de façon cyclique et à la manière d'une spirale: l'expérience concrète, l'observation réfléchie, la conceptualisation abstraite et l'expérimentation active. A ces étapes, qui comportent certaines habiletés, très succinctement définies par l'auteur, nous intégrerons des données provenant de l'approche cognitiviste.

1- L'EXPERIENCE CONCRETE: Selon Kolb (Kolb & Fry, 1974; Kolb, 1975; Kolb, 1981; Kolb, 1984; Kolb & Lewis, 1986), l'apprenant s'implique d'abord directement dans une expérience concrète. Il se laisse impressionner par tous les éléments de cette expérience. Pour réaliser ceci, l'apprenant doit être capable de "s'impliquer personnellement, pleinement et ouvertement", "s'immerger dans l'expérience", "se laisser aller", et "se libérer des biais et des contraintes conceptuelles" qui proviennent de ses expériences antérieures et qui pourraient l'empêcher de vivre l'expérience telle qu'elle se présente maintenant. Bernard, Cyr et Fontaine (1981) précisent que l'apprenant doit être stimulé par un aspect problématique afin de nourrir sa motivation à s'engager.

A ces éléments relevant principalement de l'attitude cognitive, on doit ajouter des opérations et des habiletés propres à un fonctionnement cognitif actif. L'expérience, selon Dewey, doit impliquer l'apprenant dans une interaction avec la réalité. Cette interaction suppose une transformation du réel par l'apprenant et comporte trois éléments: l'objet de départ, l'action de l'apprenant, et le produit (D'Hainaut, 1977). Une implication cognitive active de la part de l'apprenant suppose qu'il se donne un objectif en terme d'effet(s) attendu(s), qu'il clarifie la représentation de la tâche à réaliser (Paour, 1988) et qu'il puisse décrire et justifier le plus précisément possible l'action à mettre en oeuvre (Paour, 1989).

On ne peut pas parler d'expérience concrète et d'implication active de l'apprenant sans inclure l'opération cognitive d'exploration (D'Hainaut, 1977) qui consiste à chercher, pour les extraire d'une situation, les informations nécessaires dans l'étape ultérieure (observation réfléchie). L'exploration peut prendre diverses formes (exhaustive vs partielle, convergente vs divergente, successive ou séquentielle vs simultanée ou parallèle). Un apprenant efficace sait adapter sa forme d'exploration aux exigences de la tâche. Dans le contexte de l'interaction avec le réel, l'apprenant doit bien percevoir (avec tous les sens nécessaires) l'objet, avant et après l'action, ainsi que l'action elle-même (Paour, 1989). La durée de la perception et le degré d'attention doivent être optimaux, c'est-à-dire suffisants pour assurer une prise d'information efficace (Brundage & MacKeracher, 1980) et l'enregistrement mnémonique des changements (Paour, 1989).

2- L'OBSERVATION RÉFLÉCHIE: Selon Kolb, l'observation réfléchie implique un processus qui vise à reconstituer les éléments de l'expérience, à réfléchir sur elle pour la comprendre selon diverses perspectives. L'apprenant doit être capable d'"inhiber l'action" pour stopper l'expérience concrète et la regarder selon plusieurs perspectives, de manipuler avec créativité les symboles et les images associés à l'expérience, de colliger et de classer les données et de les interpréter avec précision et justesse. Chickering (1977), commentant le modèle de Kolb, ajoute que l'apprenant doit être capable de formuler des observations appropriées et de les vérifier attentivement tout en faisant preuve d'esprit d'analyse et de synthèse. Bernard, Cyr et Fontaine (1981) ajoutent que l'apprenant doit être capable de relier l'expérience actuelle aux expériences antérieures et à celles vécues ou rapportées par d'autres sous forme orale ou écrite. Pfeiffer et Jones (1981) soulignent l'importance de décrire l'expérience selon diverses perspectives (perception, affect, pensée, vouloir et action) et de reconstruire la dynamique particulière de l'expérience concrète. L'esprit d'analyse et de synthèse pour dégager les différences et les ressemblances paraissent de première importance pour comprendre et faire du sens de cette situation particulière.

Il paraît nécessaire d'enrichir la description que font ces auteurs du modèle d'apprentissage expérientiel par d'autres sources. Dans cette phase, il faut souligner le rôle primordial que joue la description verbale des éléments enregistrés lors de l'expérience concrète, puisqu'il s'agit là d'une codification des informations, qui permettra l'application des opérations ultérieures telles que la comparaison et l'identification de patterns (Eggen & Kauchak, 1988; Paour, 1989).

En vue d'interpréter les données de l'expérience concrète, l'apprenant doit être capable de décrire le plus exactement possible la situation avant et après l'action ainsi que l'action elle-même et de les comparer. De plus il doit pouvoir mettre en relation les effets attendus, les actions et les effets obtenus (Paour, 1988). Autrement dit, l'apprenant doit pouvoir effectuer des comparaisons intra-expérience en plus des comparaisons inter-expériences. L'observation des régularités et l'identification de patterns apparaissent aussi des opérations importantes pour rendre possible, à l'étape subséquente, la généralisation (Eggen & Kauchak, 1988).

Une opération rarement mentionnée est le traitement de l'erreur. Celle-ci, perçue positivement, peut devenir une occasion de questionnement et une source d'information qui permet d'augmenter la compréhension de la réalité; perçue négativement, elle peut inhiber le processus d'observation réfléchie et par là, la démarche globale d'apprentissage (Paour, 1988).

3- LA CONCEPTUALISATION ABSTRAITE: Selon Kolb, l'extraction de concepts, de principes, ou de règles qui intègrent les observations particulières précédentes en une "théorie cohérente et logique" constitue l'essentiel de la troisième étape nommée conceptualisation abstraite. L'apprenant doit être capable d'intégrer ses observations, de créer des concepts, de raisonner inductivement, de faire des inférences, d'organiser ses concepts logiquement, et d'élaborer des modèles et des théories. Citant Goldstein et Scheerer (1941), il ajoute les habiletés suivantes: verbaliser l'événement, prendre divers points de vue, les garder simultanément dans l'esprit, saisir l'essentiel d'un tout, planifier une vérification dans sa tête et l'exécuter symboliquement.

A l'instar de Kolb (1974), nous croyons que tous les niveaux d'abstraction sont ici admissibles si l'on veut tenir compte du cheminement personnel interne de l'apprenant et de la nature cyclique du modèle. Toutefois, il apparaît important, pour pouvoir analyser le savoir-apprendre d'un apprenant, de distinguer clairement entre des explications de l'événement concret et particulier que l'apprenant vient de vivre, de tentatives de généralisation à d'autres événements très semblables voires identiques, ou carrément la production de concepts abstraits décontextualisés qui portent sur un phénomène associé à cet événement. De plus, certaines des habiletés empruntées à Scheerer semblent relever davantage des deuxième et quatrième étapes du modèle.

La phase de conceptualisation abstraite demande donc à être précisée et systématisée. Il faut d'abord reconnaître qu'il existe plusieurs types de conceptualisation. La classification de D'Hainaut (1977) est intéressante à cet effet: particuliers, classes, relations (règles et principes), opérateurs (et opérations) et structures (et systèmes). Il faut distinguer trois types d'inférence: généralisante, explicative et prédictive, la première basée sur le raisonnement inductif, les deux secondes sur le raisonnement déductif (Eggen & Kauchak, 1988). A cela, on doit ajouter le raisonnement analogique (Beyer, 1988) lui aussi, très utile pour construire des sytèmes généraux de représentation. Il faut souligner qu'il n'est pas seulement utile que l'apprenant puisse effectuer ces opérations, encore faut-il qu'il ressente l'exigence personnelle de généraliser, d'expliquer et de prédire (Paour, 1989). Enfin, on doit ajouter les habiletés et les attitudes de pensée critique, i.e. celles nécessaires à l'évaluation de la validité des raisonnements effectués et des inférences produites (Eggen & Kauchack, 1988; Beyer, 1988).

4. L'EXPERIMENTATION ACTIVE: Selon Kolb, le fruit de la conceptualisation abstraite a un statut hypothétique et provisoire dont la validité doit être mise à l'épreuve par une démarche d'expérimentation active. Pour réaliser cette étape, Kolb précise que les habiletés suivantes sont nécessaires: être capable d'utiliser ses "théories", de formuler des hypothèses, d'imaginer, choisir et mettre à exécution une stratégie de vérification dans une action planifiée.

Pour enrichir l'opérationnalisation de cette étape, nous rappelons l'importance qu'accorde l'approche cognitive au raisonnement hypothétique perçu comme une extension du processus de généralisation (Eggan & Kauhak, 1988), qui permet à l'apprenant non seulement d'entrevoir des points de sa pensée à vérifier mais aussi d'étendre sa pensée à des aspects nouveaux, voire déroutants afin de tester leurs limites (Paour, 1988). Toutes les habiletés nécessaires à une action planifiée paraissent donc de première importance: poser clairement le but, inventorier systématiquement des solutions et des stratégies, anticiper systématiquement les résultats des actions envisagées à partir du système de représentation issu de l'étape précédente et appliquer ce dernier dans des contextes de plus en plus éloignés des cas particuliers vécus jusqu'à ce moment. Cela nécessite de la part de l'apprenant une attitude cognitive de traitement actif de l'information qui lui permette de s'engager pleinement et avec un haut degré de rigueur et d'exigence dans l'exécution de l'expérimentation et ce, jusqu'à la clôture de l'activité (Paour, 1989).

## APPLICATION DU MODELE A LA FORMATION DES MAITRES

Tous les partenaires impliqués dans la formation des maîtres reconnaissent la formation pratique (par ex. micro-enseignement, stages) comme une composante essentielle à l'acquisition d'une compétence professionnelle. Par contre, les expériences de supervision démontrent que le transfert de la théorie à la pratique ne se fait pas de façon satisfaisante (Paré, Bilodeau, Laferrière, 1982) et que les apprenants qui se trouvent en stage ou dans leur première année d'enseignement se sentent souvent incapables d'appliquer de manière pratique les acquisitions de sa formation théorique, tant en regard des modèles pédagogiques enseignés que des didactiques.

Dans le contexte de la formation pratique que le MEQ définit comme étant: "toute activité qui permet à l'apprenant de s'approprier une manière de faire et de constituer sa propre pratique éducative en regard d'un objet d'étude", la question devient: Comment aider l'apprenant à s'approprier son expérience de formation? Comment l'aider à la transformer en savoir professionnel? Quelles sont les habiletés requises pour générer ce savoir professionnel?

Le modèle d'apprentissage expérientiel de Kolb nous est apparu comme un modèle d'intervention offrant des possibilités intéressantes dans le cadre d'un laboratoire de micro-enseignement. Celui-ci est une technique de simulation qui permet de reproduire des situations réelles de classe. Sa structure de base comporte quatre phases: Micro-leçon enregistrée (premier essai), Visionnement (feedback et analyse), Reprise enregistrée (deuxième essai), Visionnement (feedback et analyse). Dans le cadre de cette démarche de type expérientiel, le modèle d'apprentissage de Kolb apparaît approprié, tant pour la supporter que pour l'enrichir.

Certes, la technique du micro-enseignement n'a plus à faire ses preuves. Les résultats de nombreux travaux effectués sur le micro-enseignement démontrent son efficacité pour la pratique d'habiletés de base (Altet, 1983). Par contre, cette technique, telle qu'appliquée, ne fait pas l'unanimité en ce qui a trait au transfert des acquis de la micro-situation à la situation normale de la salle de classe (Altet, 1983). Plusieurs explications de cet état de fait ont été apportées (Altet, 1983), toutefois nous voulons aborder la question du point de vue du processus complexe de transformation de l'expérience de formation en savoir professionnel et des habiletés requises pour la réaliser.

Le modèle d'apprentissage de Kolb nous est apparu comme une approche intéressante pour 1) aller vérifier chez les stagiaires la présence ou l'absence d'habiletés qui leur permettraient de s'approprier leur expérience et 2) pour enrichir l'application de la démarche du micro-enseignement en distinguant plus clairement les phases d'apprentissage et en accentuant le rôle pédagogique essentiel de la conceptualisation abstraite et de l'expérimentation active.

# FEDERAL LEGISLATION AND ADULT EDUCATION: A DIALOGUE BETWEEN THEORY AND EXPERIENCE

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This paper discusses the study of legislation as a means to understanding adult education in Canada. The approach suggested is supported by the study of history of education.

Cette disseration traite de l'étude de la législation comme moyen de comprendre l'éducation des adultes au Canada. L'approche suggéreé est appuyeé par l'étude de l'histoire de l'éducation.

## Introduction

The purposes and values of adult education have been embodied in and in turn shaped by the arguments for a number of federal policy initiatives. Debate among adult educators is seldom concerned with the origins of legislation, how such legislation is formulated, what interests it advances (or undermines) or how the effects of the legislation will be evaluated. In this paper we suggest the value of studying federal legislation in order to gain understanding of the historical and current direction of adult education in Canada. To do so we consider several pieces of legislation pertaining to adult education in Canada, discussing characteristics the legislation has in common. We elaborate on Harold Silver's suggestion that, in order to create historical understandings, especially of the recent past, we must be able to portray and evaluate experience, recognizing the theoretical pressures which accompany such evaluation. We present suggestions for the study of legislation and show how the study of legislation can shed light on recent concerns in adult education.

## Federal legislation: intrusive theory in adult education

Under the terms of confederation the British North America Act placed responsibility for education with provincial governments. A number of social and more specifically economic changes since confederation have moved the federal government into an increasingly active role in education. The gradual involvement of the federal government outlined in the chart below can be studied for certain characteristics. For instance, reforms in vocational education are usually presented as a solution to a variety of social ills, or, more recently, economic ills. In reviewing the rationale for vocational education legislation, Grubb (1978) notes "the arguments that prove persuavsive have displayed a remarkable similarity over the past hundred years". (p.77) Coulter (1986) says that each time the federal government announces its involvement it does so "in terms which suggest that such a solution is both innovative and fool-proof." (p.1) Coulter supports the argument that the legislation has not been intended to help provinces carry out their own educational mandate, but rather the legislation results in the provinces using their administrative and financial contribution for carrying out the mandate of the federal government. Thomas and Gaskin (1987) classify federal legislation into two periods. The first, up to 1940, was devoted primarily to matters of substance, such as agriculture or industry; the second dealt mainly with the circumstances and conditions of employment or its lack. They note: "Federal control through specific terms of agreement and reporting intensifies in each subsequent act." (p.6) These 'controls' or intentions and the results of federal legislation have received very little attention in the study of adult education as either intrusive theory or provincial experience.

## FEDERAL LEGISLATION PROVIDING VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

| Act | Intended to | Resulted |
|---|---|---|
| 1913 Agriculture Act | fund provinces for promotion of agriculture | support of many provincial projects |
| 1919 Technical Education Act | upgrade vocational, technical & industrial education | shared-cost presence of federal gov. in vocational education |
| 1937 Unemployment & Agricultural Assistance Act | increase employability of young people | allowance for travel and training to be continued in future |
| 1939 Youth Training Act | continued focus on young people | federal gov. making all rules & regulations & approving provincial rules and regulations |
| 1942 Vocational Training & Coordination Act | continue previous arrangement and gave training for war industries | provincial gov. (N.S.) restructures to 'accommodate' federal plan |
| 1960 Technical & Vocational Training Act | boost economy through increased technical training, especially at school level | expansion of capital projects (facilities) |
| 1967 Adult Occupational Training Act | meet 'individual' training needs | Canada Manpower controlling vocational education |

## The study of legislation

Harold Silver (1980, 1983, 1988) makes a number of suggestions for the study of history, particularly that of educational legislation. Silver advocates a balance in the study of history of education, which lies between a preoccupation with underlying forces and a sensitivity to social aspects of change in structures and the resulting changes in relationships. Believing that our understanding of educational processes and their wider relationships seems to have benefitted little from established economic history -- in which human intervention counted for little against the analysis of only underlying economic forces -- Silver argues that social processes that are co-terminous with education must be addressed. I He contends that an historical perspective is necessary in order to know how to discuss education in the present, to assess the nature and dimensions of any question; without it, we tend to present contemporary problems only in terms of their logic or their life inside a model. The absence of historical perspective may mean we abandon the larger questions to "whatever and whoever happens at the moment to have the largest visible amount of confidence." (1980, p.1) Furthermore, building theoretical assumptions into the historical search for explanations increases the likelihood that historical investigation will contribute to our understanding of the present.

Another form of balance, and an important aspect of the process of establishing historical understandings, is "an ability to portray and evaluate experience, a willingness to recognize the presence of theoretical pressures in such evaluation, and a readiness to conduct sensitive dialogue between the experience and the theory". (1983, p.240) This further explains Silver's objection to economic history models which did not account for participant experience. To bring history and experience together, Silver says, "A sensitive dialogue between the historical evaluation of experience, and the intrusive nature of theory, has never been more necessary." (1983, p.241)

In *A Liberal Vocationalism* (1988) Silver identifies some of the implications of vocational education. He says we have understood vocational education through a vocabulary pertaining to policy and practice. His emphasis is on intentions, explanations, claims for content and procedures, and the attempt to "retrieve a usable concept for discussion and action". (1988, p.17). He seeks to make the debate over vocational education more visible and to include relationships with other social structures, social processes, and levels of education. Silver sees education, then, not as a model, but as a set of structures and strategies based on identifiable assumptions. These structures and strategies require study beyond a simple search for justification or a critique of something in the present. Rather we must examine what our questions on education are asking and pursue an educational history which takes a closer look at the interaction of idea and behaviour (1980, p.184).

## An approach to the study of legislation

Silver suggests the study of legislation is "not to gain 'relevance' for history by investigating whatever is the current absorption of policy-makers" (1983, p.184), but to inquire about who is defining events as problems and what structures of power lie behind the question marks. One begins by looking at the social context of legislation. What were the priorities and assumptions of the times? Silver finds it significant, for instance, that since World War II we have embraced totally the notion that education may or should contribute to greater social justice and economic opportunity and have pursued educational policies rooted in that assumption. Locating a study in both historical and social conditions requires an understanding of the political and social nature of education that does not allow us to use "unexamined assumptions that we have assumed to be legitimate aims." (1980, p.8). Among these may be, for instance, a desire to continue with previous arrangements, or to adjust to the prevailing political climate on such issues as the role of federalism. At the time of the legislation,. what was the nature of federal-provincial relations? Was federal influence increasing? To what extent was education being subsumed in wider social policy relationships influencing legislation?

Having understood the social context of the times and thus the assumptions built into legislation, it is important to give it what Alan Thomas calls 'a close reading', mindful of such questions as those raised earlier by Grubb and Coulter. For example, to what extent does a piece of legislation involve provinces, while aimed primarily at solving a problem defined by the federal government? Where does legislation locate control, and in the case of legislation pertaining to vocational education, what is the direction of that control?

One must further attend to the experience of the participants -- in this case are the provincial governments. What has been their response as 'the controlled'? The participant experience has been particularly neglected in the study of legislation. Neither have we considered if legislation has addressed sufficiently what provinces considered to be their dilemmas in vocational education. Both questions support Silver's suggestion that we pursue a dialogue between the historical evaluation of experience and the intrusive nature of theory. Thus, it is possible to join an interpretation of legislation -- one drawn from the study of social context, the 'close reading' of the legislation, and the study of the experience of the participants -- to the practice of adult education.

## Why study legislation?

Three recent studies, on different aspects of adult education in Canada, support the need for further research on legislation relating to vocational education. A study of women's training opportunities (Wismer, 1988) looks not only at the need for policy but asks -- in recognition of increasing federal and disappearing provincial and local level resources -- "where the impetus for needed policy and programs can come from" (p. iii). The significance of this shift of impetus is also identified in a detailed study of advocacy activity in adult education (Kulich, ed. 1988), which suggests that one of the reasons for its failure may have been the lack of understanding of federal 'theory' by those rooted in the provincial experience. Federal policies can be understood only through study of what Hodgson (1988, p.11) views as one of the key bases for policy making: "the major social and economic views held at any particular time by politicians and senior civil servants." These studies support Silver's plea to study theoretical controversy with recent historical experience. The study of legislation pertaining to adult vocational education can only contribute to our understanding of the nature and direction of current thinking in adult education.

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# APPRENTISSAGE EXPERIENTIEL ET RECONSTRUCTION DU SENS DE L'EXPERIENCE

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RESUME - La communication s'applique à clarifier le concept d'apprentissage expérientiel, puis à montrer comment le récit peut donner accès au sens de l'expérience. Il s'ensuit une discussion des risques et des conditions de la reconstruction du sens de l'expérience dans la formation des adultes. La recherche est conceptuelle et critique.

ABSTRACT - After clarifying the concept of experiential learning, the authors explore how the meaning of experience may be interpreted through narratives. Risks and conditions of giving meaning to experience in the context of adult education are discussed. The research is conceptual and critical.

L'objectif de la communication est de clarifier ce qu'on entend par l'apprentissage expérientiel et d'aborder de manière critique les enjeux d'une pratique de formation d'adultes qui intègre la recherche du sens de l'expérience. Dans la première partie, nous posons en regard les unes des autres différentes utilisations du concept d'apprentissage expérientiel pour faire ressortir des différences significatives. Puis, nous associons à l'apprentissage expérientiel un savoir-faire-sens, c'est-à-dire une habileté pour la personne de transformer avec l'expérience sa manière de voir le monde et de se poser par rapport à l'action; avec l'herméneutique, nous explorons la narration comme stratégie du savoir-faire-sens. Dans une troisième partie, nous montrons, à rebours des dérives possibles d'une utilisation instrumentale des stratégies de reconstruction du sens de l'expérience, les conditions d'une pratique de savoir-faire-sens en formation d'adultes.

## L'apprentissage expérientiel

On peut considérer que l'apprentissage expérientiel est voisin conceptuellement de ce qu'on appelle l'acquis expérientiel, le savoir d'expérience ou la formation expérientielle. D'un côté, dans le cadre d'un mouvement qui incite l'enseignement supérieur et la formation professionnelle à une plus grande flexibilité pour reconnaître que l'expérience de vie ou de travail peut servir de substitut à la formation académique, ou de base pour des études approfondies, on retrouve deux oppositions: soit que l'apprentissage expérientiel correspond à ce qui est appris dans l'expérience de vie ou de travail avant que l'adulte ne soit formellement en rapport avec le milieu académique (Shulman, 1978), soit qu'on associe à l'expérience non scolaire des adultes un mode de connaissance qui va du particulier au général, par opposition à un mode de connaissance qui va du général au particulier (Preston, 1981). D'un autre côté, quand on dit que "l'apprentissage par expérience est l'apprentissage par lequel l'apprenant est directement en contact avec les réalités qui sont étudiées" (Keeton et Tate, in Sansregret, 1986, p. 21), l'immédiateté des choses est soulignée par rapport à la médiateté symbolique : "cela fait contraste avec celui (l'apprentissage) pour lequel l'apprenant ne fait que lire, entendre, parler ou écrire sur ces réalités" (ibid.). Ce caractère d'immédiateté se retrouve également chez Burnard (1988) qui distingue trois manières d'apprendre : par le truchement des modèles et des théories, par la pratique qui développe la compétence ou par l'expérience qui suppose une rencontre directe avec un sujet, une personne ou une chose.

Pour d'autres auteurs, l'apprentissage expérientiel se caractérise avant tout par son potentiel heuristique. Dans l'interaction avec son environnement, le sujet découvre les stratégies cognitives idoines, pour lui inédites; c'est le cas de l'apprentissage expérientiel (Kolb, 1984), de l'apprentissage par expérience (Dewey, 1938) ou de l'apprentissage autodidactique de sujets placés dans des environnements non structurés (Danis et Tremblay, 1985).

En français, la différence entre l'apprentissage expérientiel et la formation expérientielle n'est pas toujours claire parce que l'apprentissage désigne tantôt le processus, tantôt le résultat. Aussi, comme on le voit dans le cas de la pratique de reconnaissance des acquis, l'apprentissage d'expérience est transposé dans un contexte formel de formation et ce qui aura été subjectif, immédiat, inédit est communiqué sous forme d'énoncés de comportements observables et mesurables. Les résultats de l'expérience sont décomposés en énoncés de savoir, de savoir-faire ou de savoir-être de la formation, correspondant aux domaines psychomoteur, cognitif ou affectif de l'apprentissage (cf. Sansregret, 1986).

Pour explorer plus avant le concept d'apprentissage expérientiel, nous nous référons à l'inclusion de la réflexion critique dans l'apprentissage adulte, telle que la considère Mezirow (1985). Pour cet auteur, "le but de l'apprentissage est de rendre l'adulte capable de comprendre le sens de ses expériences..." (p. 17, nous traduisons). L'ensemble des présupposés culturels ou psychologiques selon lesquels une nouvelle expérience est assimilée aux expériences du passé, et transformée par elles, est susceptible de se modifier avec la problématisation de la réflexion critique. Il s'opère alors une transformation du sens de l'expérience ou du sens de la vie.

Pour résumer, disons que le concept d'apprentissage expérientiel, ou de formation expérientielle, s'oppose de manière convenue à l'apprentissage structuré dans l'environnement scolaire. Par ailleurs, de manière descriptive, on associe le concept d'apprentissage expérientiel au rapport que la personne entretient avec la réalité. Tantôt on met en valeur la donnée première de l'expérience, symbolisée, et donc médiatisée, dans le savoir théorique. Tantôt on l'associe au sens que prend pour la personne le rapport qu'elle entretient avec la réalité dans l'expérience. Dans le premier cas, la philosophie sous-jacente puise dans l'humanisme rogérien centré sur le sujet, dans le constructivisme ou le progressisme de Dewey qui superpose à l'expérience première le contruit expérimental. L'expérience y est alors généralement associée à un processus mental interne, elle est la réaction du sujet à l'environnement ou son interaction avec lui, ou le résultat de celles-ci, et elle s'accumule au cours de la vie. L'apprentissage est considéré comme une transformation de l'expérience en termes de savoir, savoir-faire ou savoir-être. Dans le second cas, s'ajouteront avec une perspective de phénoménologie herméneutique des dimensions de temporalité, d'intersubjectivité et d'interaction.

## La narration comme stratégie du savoir-faire-sens

Dans les pratiques de formation d'adultes la narration est apparue à plusieurs comme une stratégie appropriée du savoir-faire-sens. Elle a pour objet l'expérience éducative, l'expérience de vie en général ou elle cherche le point d'ancrage du projet académique ou professionnel. En racontant sa vie ou son expérience, la personne aurait donc accès à son sens; c'est ce que Dilthey affirme : "L'autobiographie est la forme suprême et la plus instructive dans laquelle nous rencontrons la compréhension de la vie" (in Finger, 1984, p. 166). Dans les pratiques de reconnaissance des acquis, on recourt également à l'autobiographie, à des résumés ou à des chroniques d'expériences sociales, professionnelles ou personnelles, avec une intention toutefois de mettre à plat dans une expression qui donne prise à la mesure le savoir ou le savoir-faire qui ont, aux yeux de la personne, résulté de son expérience. Les pratiques de compréhension de l'expérience resteront pour leur part en contact avec le temps et l'espace de l'expérience elle-même.

La phénoménologie herméneutique a mené la réflexion contemporaine à considérer, entre autres, que rien n'entre dans l'expérience qui ne soit raconté. C'est-à-dire qu'avant que ne les décompose l'analyse, "nos actions et nos expériences constituent pour nous des histoires" (Carr, 1986, p. 71, nous traduisons). La narration a une fonction pratique; avec sa dimension de réflexion, elle organise et structure le temps et l'intention de l'action, ainsi que l'expérience. Dans le courant de la phénoménologie herméneutique, la philosophie de Ricoeur peut servir de fondement pour reconstruire le plan du contenu de l'expérience à partir du plan de l'expression du discours. Le sens de l'expérience et la compréhension de soi sont donc médiatisés par le récit.

Pour Ricoeur (1983), c'est l'opération de configuration ou la mise en intrigue qui caractérise le discours narratif. Une histoire est en effet organisée selon une logique qui lui est propre, c'est-à-dire que le narrateur préside à l'arrangement des événements, des actions : "c'est en vertu seulement de la composition poétique que quelque chose vaut comme commencement, comme milieu et comme fin..." (p. 66). Ainsi, quand une personne raconte une expérience, elle en organise les éléments de manière à ce que l'histoire ait un sens. En outre, le récit parle de l'expérience ou du monde, non pas en les décrivant, mais en les imitant. Il s'opère donc par le langage un déplacement métaphorique du vécu au discours, du monde à l'histoire.

Quant à l'interprétation, elle est dialectique. D'abord, quand il raconte son expérience, l'énonciateur la met à distance dans la configuration du texte : "entre vivre et raconter, un écart, si infime soit-il, se creuse. La vie est vécue, l'histoire est racontée" (Ricoeur, 1986, p. 15). Tout en étant le gardien de l'espace et du temps de l'expérience, le récit crée son propre monde. Dans un deuxième moment, on analyse le texte pour y repérer le sens. Ricoeur (1986) a essayé pour cela de s'en tenir à une "notion de sens qui se réduirait strictement à l'arangement des éléments d'un texte, à l'intégration des segments d'actions et des actants à l'intérieur du récit considéré comme un tout fermé sur lui-même" (p. 154). Le troisième moment de l'interprétation est une réappropriation du sens de ce qui est raconté à partir du monde de l'oeuvre, une reprise du sens qui est une refiguration de ce qui est raconté. La réalité à propos de laquelle l'énonciateur tient un discours n'est pas niée, mais le sens de cette réalité est donné au lecteur dans son interaction avec le sens de l'expression. Dans le cas du récit d'apprentissage ou du récit de formation, on peut voir le travail de configuration et de refiguration; l'énonciateur devient interprète et la réflexion se conjugue à la narration.

## Les dérives possibles et les conditions d'une pratique du savoir-faire-sens

En utilisant la mise en récit comme stratégie du savoir-faire-sens, les pratiques de formation des adultes s'exposent à deux risques que nous nommons la dérive évaluative et la dérive pédagogique : soit que l'on juge du sens donné à l'expérience en fonction d'un savoir-faire-sens de référence, soit que l'on enseigne un savoir-faire-sens au même titre que toute autre habileté.

Dans le premier cas, ayant d'abord converti l'action de donner sens, on s'applique ensuite à établir l'écart entre le sens que la personne donne à son apprentissage et la norme académique, professionnelle ou idéologique du milieu de formation. Par exemple, on associe le savoir-faire-sens à un apprentissage affectif dont l'indice est "la caractérisation par une valeur ou un système de valeurs", ce qui se traduit ainsi : "l'apprenant a des caractéristiques personnelles uniques, sa propre philosophie de vie et sa perception du monde" (Sansregret, 1986, p. 131). Si, en plus, ce savoir-faire-sens doit être mesurable, on sera amené à juger de la conformité de cette philosophie ou de cette perception du monde à une norme. La formation expérientielle fonctionne alors comme le relais d'une vision du monde établie. Derrière le diagnostic et renforcée par lui, on entrevoit la mise en marché des normes, par exemple celles du milieu du travail pour les apprentissages professionnels. On peut donc voir à l'oeuvre l'effet pervers d'une pratique de formation qui déguise la conformité avec l'habileté d'ordre affectif à posséder ou à acquérir.

Dans le second cas, le risque provient de deux tendances des pratiques d'éducation, l'une à réduire les savoirs à leur dimension instrumentale pour pouvoir les enseigner, l'autre à étendre son hégémonie didactique à toutes les dimensions de la vie. D'une part, ce qui est d'abord considéré comme un moyen de construire sa vision du monde (la pratique de la mise en récit, le dialogue, le groupe, etc.) devient un objet d'enseignement en soi, un ensemble de savoir-faire à apprendre. D'autre part, l'expérience d'apprentissage se perd dans la globalité des expériences de la vie et on ne distingue plus non plus entre l'apprentissage expérientiel à l'intérieur de l'environnement éducatif ou à l'extérieur.

La dérive évaluative et la dérive pédagogique posent de manière critique le problème des conditions de possibilité d'un savoir-faire-sens qui dépasse l'enfermement du soi dans son expérience et l'aliénation du sens dans une stratégie. Contre la dérive évaluative, il semble s'imposer que la formation expérientielle soit avant tout une pratique du faire-sens. Dans cette optique, la formation offre à l'adulte un lieu de réflexion où il peut problématiser sa vision du monde. Que ce soit par l'entremise d'une herméneutique du récit, du dialogue ou de la communication que se réalise cette problématisation, cette dernière se fait à son tour critique de sa stratégie.

Contre la dérive pédagogique, le caractère de pratique du savoir-faire-sens s'impose à la formation des adultes, ainsi que le choix des stratégies de problématisation du sens de l'expérience. En second lieu, la formation des adultes délimite son espace de pratique, à l'interface d'espaces sociaux différents, et elle reste critique d'une vision unidimensionnelle de l'apprentissage, de la formation, de la vie.

## Conclusion

La pratique de formation des adultes recourt à la stratégie narrative dans des contextes variés d'enseignement, de perfectionnement professionnel ou de reconnaissance des apprentissages expérientiels. Il s'agit avant tout, si l'on adopte l'herméneutique de Ricoeur, de retrouver par l'intermédiaire de la configuration du récit, puis dans la refiguration interprétative, la forme de l'expérience elle-même.

C'est-à-dire que le sens de l'expérience se donne à reconstruire et à comprendre en aval du récit, précisément par le mouvement réflexif qui éloigne de soi et prend le relais de la temporalité, de l'intersubjectivité et de l'interaction de l'histoire racontée.

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# ADULT STUDENT ATTRITION AT POST-SECONDARY INSTITUTIONS

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Abstract: It is argued that Tinto's (1975) model of student attrition is a less effective explanatory model for adult students than for traditional age students. Research findings suggest that the model is actually followed more closely for adult students, but revision to the model may still be indicated.

On a prétendu que le modèle d'attrition des étudiants proposé par Tinto (1975) explique de facon moins efficace le cas des étudiants adultes que celui des étudiants d'âge <traditionnel>. Toutefois, les trouvailles indiquent qu'en realité, le rendement des étudiants adultes suit de plus près les prédictions du modèle que ne le fait l'autre groupe. Des révisions du modèle seraient éventuellement faites.

## INTRODUCTION

Research in the area of student attrition from college and university campuses has long been of interest to practitioners and administrators at these institutions. Losing students to voluntary withdrawal is of particular interest due to the loss of human potential and wasted resources. More recently, this issue has been compounded by another phenonmenon. The composition of the student population in terms of age group is changing as adult or non-traditional age (NTA) students enroll in increasing numbers. For the purposes of this discussion, non-traditional age students are those who are twenty-three years of age or older.

This NTA student group varies from its younger counterpart in many ways. For example, on the negative side, they may have difficulty integrating into student life and, on the more positive side, they may feel a greater sense of commitment to the goal of obtaining a post-secondary education. These and other variations in NTA student characteristics may affect the way in which dropout decisions are made for this group. If this is the case, new information on how NTA choose to persist or withdraw from student life may be translated into effective retention strategies, strategies that take into account the characteristics of both traditional age (TA) students and NTA students.

## THEORETICAL ISSUES

Tinto's (1975) model of student attrition appears to be the most widely used model in the research literature in this area. It is a longitudinal, institutionally oriented model that is based primarily on the concept of integration found in Durkheim's (1961) theory of suicide. For Tinto, a student's decision to persist or withdraw from campus life is a longitudinal process that begins with the background characteristics that a student brings to the institution. These background characteristics have an effect on the student's success or failure at integrating into the social systems of the institution. Together these background characteristics and degrees of integration lead to a level of commitment. The influence of the student's degree of integration on dropout occurs, according to Tinto, through changing commitments, to both the goal of graduation and the institution of attendance. This level of commitment, in turn, is the most important factor in determining which students persist and which students withdraw.

Tinto suggests that this model allows for the influence of factors from outside the institution in two ways. Background characteristics, made up of family background, individual attributes and pre-college schooling are controlled across levels of integration and commitment. In other words, the effect of variation from factors antecedent to a student's entry to college or university is controlled. Secondly, Tinto suggests that there are factors outside the institution that may impact on a student's decision to withdraw while they are in attendance at the institution. For Tinto, students perpetually perform a cost-benefit analysis in reference to their attendance at college. This cost-benefit analysis takes into account the costs and benefits of their relationship with the post secondary institution as well as the costs and benefits attributed to the influence of various external factors that are changing as the student progresses through college. The result of this cost-benefit analysis manifests itself in the student's level of commitment.

It would appear that Tinto has covered all bases with this model as factors both external and internal to the institution of attendance, that will impact on a student's decision to persist or withdraw, are allowed for. Unfortunately, it would appear that Tinto's model works on the assumption that factors external to the institution will impact on students in random fashion, and he does not allow for the measurement of these variables. When commitment to the institution or to the goal of graduation is low, we do not have information about the effect of factors external to the institution. This lack of information about the impact of external factors would not be a problem if we could assume that the effect has an equal likelihood of occuring for every student in the population. However, based on the knowledge that the student population is changing in terms of age and based on information that NTA students vary in characteristics that will affect student life, it is quite likely that external factors will impact on the campus population in a way that will systematically bias the results of measuring institutionally oriented factors relating to dropout.

According to Jarvis (1987), differences between NTA students and TA students are found in two areas. Firstly, NTA students have a qualitatively unique relationship with their teachers. They bring an experiential history to the learning context that gives them a different perspective on the subject matter and the learning context. This changes their perception of their relationship with the teacher. Secondly, and more importantly in terms of this discussion, Jarvis does not believe there are any intrinsic differences in the way NTA and TA students learn, but feels that the primary difference that impacts on the learning situation is the difference in the social status of students. For TA students in post-secondary institutions, the role of student is more likely to be their primary role. NTA students, on the other hand, are more likely to have taken on other roles of spouse, parent and employee; roles that will impinge on resources otherwise used in the role of student. This may result in a situation of overload that will affect the NTA student's ability to integrate and to maintain their level of commitment to the institution or the goal of graduation. The concept of role overload is outlined by Sieber (1974) and a similiar explanation is applied specifically to learning by McClusky (1963). Also, NTA students may have difficulty adjusting to the role of student after an absence from formal education. This will similarly impact on their have difficulty adjusting to the role of student after an absence from formal education. This will similarly impact on their relationship with the institution.

These problems of inadequate role preparation and role overload are external factors that are differentially affecting students across age groups; that is they are more likely to be a problem for NTA students than for TA students. These external factors will in turn differentially impact on the levels of integration and commitment central to working of Tinto's model, and in turn on the decision to persist or withdraw, without being directly taken into account. Therefore, it is suggested that Tinto's model will be less effective in explaining variation in dropout behavior for NTA students than for TA students. This is the main hypothesis for this research project.

## METHODS

The chosen population was a large, publicly funded university that serves a combination of resident and commuter students. A random sample of degree based courses was taken. Students in these classes were asked to complete the survey; participation was voluntary. A total of 414 surveys were collected with usable responses received from 325 respondents. A comparison with the campus population revealed that the sample was disproportionate in terms of age group. The sample was weighted to represent the population for statistical analysis. Weight was applied to both groups and the original N of 325 was unchanged.

Respondents were followed for one year to distinguish persisters from those who withdrew. According to my review of the respondents' academic records, 39 students had voluntarily withdrawn in the year following the survey. This dropout rate of 12% is consistent with other research (Pascarella and Terenzini 1980; Terenzini, Lorang and Pascarella 1981).

The operationalization of variables and the survey instrument is available from the author. The operationalization of Tinto's model is consistent with the work of Pascarella and Terenzini (1980, 1981) and Terenzini, Lorang and Pascarella (1981).

Logistic regression was employed to analyze direct effects of the variables in the model. It was felt that this was the most valid method of analysis for a model with a dichotomous dependent variable. (Walsh 1987). Path analysis was then used to determine the ability of the model to explain variation in the endogenous variables, integration and commitment. For both methods, analysis of the pooled sample and the split samples are reported.

## FINDINGS

Table 1 reports the results of logistic regression analysis run on the pooled sample, the traditional age student group and the non-traditional age student group. For the pooled sample, both the variables academic integration and commitment yielded co-efficient/standard error ratios greater than two. According to Walsh (1987) this number is analogous to a test of significance and deems the variable to be a useful one. The regression coefficients are interpreted as the amount of change in the log-odds of making a dropout decision for a one unit change in the predictor variables. As the predictor variables are continuous, the coefficients appear quite small (ie. -.023* and -.066*).

Splitting the sample yielded interesting changes in the results. For TA students, only academic integration remained as a useful predictor variable (-.023). For NTA students, commitment was the only useful predictor variable (-.139).

Results showing the proportion of variance explained determined from path analysis are reported in Table 2. Briefly, the model does a better job explaining the variation in academic integration and social integration for TA students than for NTA students (19.7% and 12.3% plus 26.9% and 20.9% respectively). Commitment, however, shows a different pattern. The model explains more of the variation in commitment for NTA students than for TA students (24.7% and 10.2% respectively). It must be noted that the R squared for TA students is not significant at the .05 level. For this model, F=1.36, significance=.2082.

TABLE 1
Regression Coefficients - Logistic Regression Model

| Variables | Pooled Sample | TA Students | NTA Students |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Socioeconomic Status | .005 | .018 | -.034 |
| 2. Gender | .044 | -.046 | .180 |
| 3. Resident/Commuter | -.274 | -.290 | -.604 |
| 4. Educational Aspirations | .064 | .039 | -.269 |
| 5. Preference for Chosen Institution | .114 | -.015 | .398 |
| 6. Expected Consultation Time with Faculty | -.012 | -.025 | .048 |
| 7. High School Average | -.003 | .000 | -.018 |
| 8. High School Participation | -.046 | -.029 | -.165 |
| 9. Academic Integration | -.023* | -.023* | -.029 |
| 10.Social Integration | -.006 | -.007 | -.005 |
| 11.Commitment | -.066* | -.039 | -.139* |

*Coefficient/Standard Error Ratio >2.

TABLE 2
Multiple correlation coefficients (squared)

| | Pooled Sample | TA Students | NTA Students |
|---|---|---|---|
| Regression of academic integration on variables 1 through 8 | .126* | .197* | .123* |
| Regression of social integration on variables 1 through 8 | .184* | .269* | .209* |
| Regression of commitment on variables 1 through 10 | .148* | .102 | .247* |

*F </= .05

## DISCUSSION

Background characteristics as outlined by this model do not explain variation in levels of integration as well for NTA students as they do for TA students. This finding supports our theoretical argument that integration into the social systems of the institution may be a function of the NTA student's ability to perform the role of student and the degree of role overload in their life as a whole. The constructs could be measured by including other background variables;

variables such as length of time since last participation in a formal learning situation, marital status, number of dependents and number of hours spent on responsiblities other than school work.

Explaining level of commitment is a different story. The model explains more of the variation in commitment for NTA students than for TA students. This finding deviates from the direction of the suggested relationship. However, the effect of academic integration on commitment, while significant for both groups, was very small. For NTA student's, b=.13; for TA students, b=.07. The effect of social integration on commitment was insignificant for both groups. (A complete list of regression coefficients is available from the author.)

According to Tinto's model, integration is a critical factor in the determination of the level of commitment, which in turn influences the decision to dropout. This pattern is not substantiated for either age group, although each group has a unique deviation. For TA students, commitment is not explained by variables in the model and dropout decisions are influenced only by academic integration. The model is a better fit for NTA students, contrary to the hypothesized differences across age groups. For this age group, the model explains more of the variation in commitment and commitment has the only significant direct effect on dropout decisions. The suggested influence from external factors may still be important, perhaps more in terms of NTA student integration, which may explain more of the variation in commitment and which may in turn further our knowledge of dropout decisions.

## CONCLUSION

The suggestion that Tinto's model of student attrition is less effective in explaining dropout for NTA students than for TA students was not upheld by this research. The suggestions that 1) external factors, differing for each age group, are not being taken into account by this model, and that 2) these external factors will differ for each age group, may still be valid. Further investigation that includes larger samples and measurement of relevant external factors is required.

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# DIALOGUE: ON ADULT EDUCATION IN ACADEMIA

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## Abstract

This paper examines the nature of gender-related concerns within the context of university adult education programs.
Cette présentation examine la nature des préoccupations reliées au sexe des personnes dans le contexte des programmes d'éducation pour adultes au niveau universitaire.

## Purpose of Research

This research project emerged from a dialogue initiated at the Critial Theory and AERC sessions in Calgary, 1988, in which questions were raised about the misappropriation or naive understanding of women's perspectives by prominent male theorists, many of whom are frequently referred to and used by adult educators. In view of the feminist critiques of adult education such misappropriation engenders, we explore the question of the extent to which genuine, non-strategic, non-manipulative communication is possible between men and women engaged in the university study of adult education.

## Preface

The form we use to report on our research project might prove unusual for conventional conference proceedings, but the risk is worthwhile if prospects for further conversation on the issues we discuss is thereby engendered. Michael Collins begins the dialogue, addressing what he perceives to be significant questions and concerns raise by Sue Collard during their correspondence and conversations. Sue will then pick up and elaborate on Michael's representation of the issues at stake, and will point to any significant absences she sees in his discussion.

*Mike*: If there's enough space, Sue I suppose you will take me on, tactically but tactfully, for my "naive understanding of women's perspectives." But having accepted your invitation to the dance, I am now prepared to (take the) lead. Or maybe that should be I hope I lead off on the right foot? Regarding significant absences, isn't this what Carmel Chambers talked about in her critique of our favourite contemporary critical theorist, Jurgen Habermas?[1] If we want to consider how gender is constructed in and how it constructs the discourse of adult education, I think we have to reveal those relevant concerns that are, consciously or unconsciously, left out of the texts and everyday practices of contemporary adult education. A realization of how women's perspectives are overlooked, or misappropriated, leads us to think about other critical concerns that are effectively blocked off or distorted by the discourses, texts, and research endeavours of modern adult education.

For male radicals attracted to the notion of adult education as a social movement, insights from feminist perspectives clearly provide substance for a critical, emancipatory pedagogy, and it is fairly easy to see how the interests of male radical and socialist academics in the field overlap with feminist concerns. It is not so easy to identify ways in which men can become authoritatively engaged in altering the prevailing gendered construction of adult education. Obviously, critical theorizing is not enough, as you demonstrated when you pinched the cheek of that model of male modesty, Paulo Freire, for claiming the right to shoulder the cause of women.[2] (We have tended to think of Freire as a virtual embodiment of the gentle man, though I think you're right -- "I am a woman" is a somewhat extravagant claim!) So, as to "authoritative engagements in feminist concerns" aren't you warning male colleagues (including, or especially, the radicals and closet socialists) to proceed very carefully?

You seized upon my acknowledgement that we need to begin an on-going conversation within university adult education where ethical issues that concern feminists, women graduate students, cannot be readily evaded. I understand that you have in mind more than a programmatic decision to plug into the Introduction of Adult Education course a component on feminism or to add a 3 credit hour elective class on Feminism in Adult Education. But how about if we deploy an "invented in the U.S.A." affirmative action package and officially confirm that the next faculty appointment is going to be a woman, come what may? Under present circumstances, this typical kind of mechanistic reponse to ethical concerns in education is the best we have come to expect.

At another level (and in the meantime), Habermas's notion of communicative action could provide us with inspiration, despite the alleged gender blindness of his theoretical project. It does hold out the prospect for including ethical issues and normative assertions (for instance, "adult education in academia should actively seek to include women's participation as equal partners") as integral to on-going rational discourse. Among the coercive structures and systematic distortions that are revealed in communicative encounters, we must surely find those that bend the modern practices of adult education toward patriarchal interests. That's more than a mouthful. (We did agree to check flights into abstract theorizing -- and anyway, like some feminists, I am uneasy with Habermas's quest for model, method, ideal speech situation and over-arching rational scheme.) Do you think we can develop sufficient communicative competence among men and women in academic adult education to sustain an on-going rational conversation about the ethical imperatives central to much feminism? If not, perhaps you could draw up a list of competencies (amenable to measurement, of course) so that male colleagues can check that they know enough about women's experience. In the form of a learning contract maybe? As long as it's efficient!

Once we do recognize that gender (not "hearing women's voices") is fundamentally an ethical issue, male colleagues sympathetic to feminist concerns can scarcely leave out of the reckoning a reflection on the nature of their day-to-day relationships with women and the extent of their complicity in prevailing patriarchal arrangements. If hypocrisy can be avoided and we can eschew the Anne Landers-type fix, there is much pain involved in careful reflection on failures both to nurture these relationships or to fulfill normatively defined expectations of the male role. But I don't want to get into the familiar "men are also victims of capitalist political economy" here, as the argument can be invoked to evade the issue at stake. This raises the problem of how we relinquish patriarchal power and privilege without walking away from responsibility. It is here that we recognize what blocks the move from sympathy for feminst concerns to the kind of radical action that feminist perspectives require. (Clearly, serious feminist theorists would scorn the hollow rhetoric on empowering the disadvantaged that we have generated in adult education of late.)

I think, however, it would be a mistake to leave the ethical issue in the lap of sympathetic male intellectuals. Feminists ought to be especially sensitive to the price that has to be paid (by women and children as well as men) for the further unravelling of patriarchal arrangements in contemporary society. I sense that women's interests have had little to do with this unravelling of traditional male power. However, if we agree that the insights derived from critical theory and deconstruction *can* have practical consequences, feminism (like all critical discourses) should not evade its harmful as well as beneficient potential. There is a darker side to our deconstructionism if we are really playing for real.

Feminist discourse does tend to emphasize concrete reality and the ethical vitality of its concerns. (Hence its attractions for male radicals who are uncomfortably aware of the whimsical nature of what passes for critical theorizing -- neo-Marxisms included.) Through critical theory we can understand well enough the shortcomings of modern adult education techniques (formal needs assessments, learning contracts, competency-based systems, etc.). I have found, however, that feminist perspectives can tell us *why* such artifical pedagogical arrangements persist and *how* they help sustain and mask existing power relationships. Feminist discourse can provide a counter-force to over-arching pedagogical schemes and texts that purport to define the field as a whole. It challenges the very notion of singling out individual spokes*men* for the field and charismatic *paternalistic* builders of a profession. Is this all too nebulous? Perhaps I should have suggested relevant strategies. In the context of our discussion, I would be interested in what advice you would give to the head of a university academic program in adult education. What initiative could s/he realistically undertake to engender adult education in a more feminist manner?

*Sue*: Generally speaking, I think of a dialogue as a conversational exchange of views. One of the things that worries me about our present *folie à deux* is the possibility this format is insufficiently dialogical. Does it impede conversation rather than foster it? The situation where you lead and I follow can be seen to allow you (rather than us) to frame this discussion. My initial reaction was that this leaves me, as respondent, in a position where I can pursue one of two routes. Either I can follow your conversational gambits and use the dialogical compass implicit in your text, or I can criticize what you have to say and hope that a feminist cartography will lead me to safe haven. Unfortunately, both of these routes have their dangers and drawbacks.

Obviously, if you are seen to determine which issues get aired then your role in our dialogue becomes the traditional -- if stereotypic -- one of male professor as authority. And given the topics we discuss, I doubt if you would want to be classed as yet another member of the aristocracy of male scholars whose property has always included authoritative knowledge about women/ feminism. Thinking of feminism's reconceptualization of academic politics, and of the transformation it requires in the conventions about which people are allowed to speak and the places they are allowed to speak from, if I acede and follow in your steps to what extent do I or can I hope to change the prevailing conditions within academic adult education? And is your complicity in patriarchal systems reinforced? Does playing page to your Wenceslaus, or Ginger to your Fred, effectively silence my contribution?

Of course, I suppose I could always tread on your toes, start to criticize, although I suspect you have already anticipated me here by your mention of significant absences. Bearing in mind the commonplace observation that discourses (in the general sense of the term) are equally constructed by what they omit, wouldn't I be left with the problem of saying something about the repeated exclusion of women's work, or about how -- somewhere along the line -- you have missed a step or two? And who wants to be in the position today of having to point this out -- again! If I do, doesn't it put me in the role of feminist virago, intellectual shrew, the generic nag of academe? One of the problems with nagging, of course, is that it is a mode of repetition which fails to produce its desired effects simply because of its repetition. The path of criticism leads to a situation where I can be not so much silenced but ignored. Both routes, it seems, lead to absences all the more profound.

Despite these qualms, I would like first to address some of the issues you raise, and then to offer a brief criticism. At one point you asked if I were warning male colleagues to proceed carefully; although I would have used the term "asking", you're basically correct. Even the most sympathetic of men must find it hard (impossible?) to cross the barrier between thinking *like* a woman and thinking *as* a woman: sympathy does not gives authoritative access to women's experience. And given the extent to which experience is a central category in much feminist theory, I at times wonder how, exactly, men find reading feminist literature. (Of course, reading feminist literature is no guarantee of sympathetic behaviour: how many women have, like me, been present at but excluded from a conversation at which men pontificate about feminism?)

Somewhat later, you talk about communicative competence and the possibilities for rational conversation. I have several problems with this question, partly because I think we tend to try and make the notion of rationality do more than it can, and partly because I feel rational conversation useless unless it leads to action. At present, I sincerely doubt we could hold a "rational conversation" about anything, although I wouldn't be here unless I felt there were some hope. You see, for me the idea of a conversation implies that both sides are heard and both sides listen. I'm not sure this is possible at present in adult education because adult educaiton operates with a canonical literature by men, which is taught and interpreted predominantly by male professors. Any discussion of the ethical imperatives of feminism would sooner or later have to address the politics of knowledge implicit in this situation, and I fear that women's voices might be drowned out by the institutionally amplified *basso profundo* of the largely male professoriat.

You end by asking that most dreaded of questions, "what advice would you give..." (we might have to discuss this irrationally, later). Frankly I don't know, although I think that the debate around curricular reform is right to point out that what is really required is a transformaiton in men's attitudes and values. When I do think about this issue, I tend to think in metaphoric terms: I want to "expand the bibliography" of adult education. If you think about it, a bibliography frames and defines a research piece or a body of knowledge. I want adult education to expand its bibliography to include women's and feminist literature, making these integral to its knowledge in a way that doesn't diminish its difference, its specificity. (Let's face it, the bottom line of any bibliography is that you're supposed to have read the texts involved.) A good a place as any to begin is with men reading feminist literature, a rare enough occurrence.

This leads to my criticism. In your half of this conversation I see a certain equivocation at work: for someone supposedly engaged in a dialogue on adult education in academia, you seem to swerve away from talking about academic practice. I find this significant. Your last question, which leaves me in propria persona feminist to legislate on adult education, typifies this equivocation: were you (kindly?) leaving me the last word?; were you trying to create a space for practical criticism without situating yourself as an authority on gender issues?; or was this a tactic which allowed you to avoid the responsibility of making a statement at all? Similarly, you talk in a very generic way about the need to begin a conversation on "ethical issues of concern to feminists" rather than of the ethical issues involved in the frequently dubious treatment of women (students and professors) by academia, and including adult education. A cynical interpretation of your equivocations might suggest that you are flirting vicariously with feminist concerns without wanting to commit yourself to a more demanding partnership. Are you afraid the next dance will be "ladies' choice"? Given this criticism, how would you respond to your own statement about the need for reflection on your day-to-day relationships with women?

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# Native Indian Adults in a University Academic and Support Program: Program Development and Formative Evaluation

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## Abstract

L'auteur passe en revue un certain nombre de documents concerant les programmes destinés à faciliter pour les étudiantes Amérindiens la transition entre l'école secondaire ou le travail et les études post-secondaires. Il relève, en les resumant, les facteurs susceptibles de s'appliquer au Programme en vue de l'obtention du Diplôme d'Etudes Amérindiennes offert par l'Uiversité Trent, et il propose des sujets de recherche ultérieure.

A sample of literature is reviewed with regard to "transitional" or "bridge" programs for Native Indian students entering colleges and universities. Some variables which are relevant to Trent University's Native Studies Diploma Program are summarized, and some working hypotheses for its future evaluation are proposed.

## 1) Introduction

This paper attempts to briefly outline a number of factors of success or failure in the experience of Native Indian students in programs designed to ease transition to college or university settings. In addition, comments will be made on some of the variables which are discussed with regard to experience in the transitional program at Trent University (known as the Diploma Program.) The review is construed as part of the literature research process which would form the basis for more systematic formative evaluation of the Program.

Trent University has offered the Diploma Program for over a decade. The two-year program admits students will less than the normal university admission qualifications of Grade 13. Its purpose is to accelerate the rate at which the number of Native student enter and graduate from Trent. Students may proceed to B.A. level and beyond if their performance indicates promise. The program is characterized by a lighter course work-load as well as mandatory tutoring and personal counselling. The Diploma Program is dealing with many of the issues which are reflected in the literature.

## 2) Review of the Literature

Below is a small sample of literature regarding Canadian and American programs.

Beiswenger (1985) exemplifies a description of specialist transitional programs. The case in point is description of preparation for training in medicine at the University of North Dakota.

Two groups were the focus: students in grades 7 to 10 in junior high school and those in grades 11 and 12 in senior high schools. The author focusses upon the "front end" issues, namely the importance of close relationships with high schools. Also important is the program as an example of specialist programs, as opposed general purpose ones.

Brown, (1985) describes a funding arrangement for several institutions which have bridge programs. The purpose of the funding was to give support to "...a range of programs and services to enable designated groups of students to be more successful in achieving their educational goals."
Brown identifies a number of variables which determined their relative success in higher education. Evaluative recommendations of some key dimensions are summarized below:

- Funding: Seek out permanent, internally-based funding.
- Planning: Make conscious and long-range plans to continue the activity past grant period.
- Staffing: Formally release project staff from other assignments in order to fully focus their energies.
- Coordination: Develop formal liaisons with campus offices in addition to ones which are concerned exclusively with minority affairs.
- Management: Increase program leadership through formal development of managerial skills.
- Leadership: Generally, provide inspired and imaginative direction.
- Role modeling: Select staff who have the ability to motivate students.
- Conceptualization: Select and train staff with the ability to understand the complexity of problems which transitional students experience.
- Breadth of academic resources: Ensure the involvement of regular faculty, that is, more than "special" staff.
- Pro-active "lead-in": Devote resources to early and effective contact with high school students and counselling staff.

In the Indian Resource Development Annual Report, the author provides insights regarding programming at New Mexico State University at Las Cruces. Focus here was upon accelerating the number of Native engineering students at the University level. Elements similar to those of Brown were identified, such as:

- Need for early and consistent liaison with high schools
- Informal approaches, such as lunch-time sessions to "trouble-shoot" the more common problems regarding academic communication skills through the use of groups as opposed to individual tutoring.
- Use of intensive personal contact; for instance over one thousand instances of skill-related tutoring were recorded by the academic support centre for one academic period.

Kleinfeld (1987) discusses the programming related to success of Native students at the University of Alaska at FairBanks. The study dealt with student characteristics rather than that of the administrative aspects of the program. Drawing upon other literature, Kleinfeld noted three variables associated with the success of Native students at University: level of academic preparation; goal orientation, and personal ease in the campus social world.

- In the sample, level of academic preparation did predict success or failure in university programming
- Similarly goal orientation was also a predictor. Kleinfeld commented that probably more Native students came to university in order to "see what it is like" than non-Native students, suggesting cultural differences made university more of a novel and strange experience seen from the outside than for non-Native students. As Kleinfeld puts it, only a minority of Native students could articulate particular goals which would be achieved following university experience.

There appeared to be no relationship between a student's personal ease in the campus social world and achievement.

One recommendation which the author made was more intensive orientation about university programming at the high school level.

Artichoker and Palmer (1959) discuss "selected problems" of Sioux Indians in their college careers in South Dakota. Problems in ranked order which the writer found were:

- Financing and budgeting
- Tribal and federal policies and procedures regarding loans and scholarships
- Relationships with parents

As with several other studies, a major challenge for students in Artichoker's and Palmer's study was reconciling university life with their existing ties to their home Native community. Artichoker and Palmer also identified several, ranked reasons for students' decision to leave university; the two major ones were financial problems and low grades. ALso less important in ranked order were:

- Alcohol problems
- General indifference or lack of motivation
- Decision to marry
- General inability to adjust
- Being drawn into the social life too much
- "General discouragement"
- Homesickness
- Difficulties at home, such as parental illness
- Military obligations

Artichoker and Palmer also found that the longer that the student stayed with a university career, the less attractive returning to life on the reserve became. If interest in returning to one's reserve community endured, the main reason was the possibility of employment.

Many of the above points have a personal focus; Artichoker and Palmer also investigated inter-personal dynamics as well. In regard to inter-racial issues, most students did not feel that being Native was a handicap at university. If racism was experienced, it was not associated with "campus life" in general, but perhaps with what one could call "town life" or after-hours contact with the broader public.

In addition, the author found that Native students saw certain advantages to being Native. Two major ones were the financial advantages of government sponsorship, and the "cultural expertise" which was ascribed to them by non-Native students.

With regard to social life, no major problems were reported; there was no strong interest in dating only Natives.

About one-third of the students reported having personal problems and gave parents or spouse, friends, and a minister or counsellor, (in that order) as sources of support. Three-quarters felt that there was someone at the university to talk to.

Artichoker's and Palmer's study was the only one in which comparative information was given regarding Native and non-Native students. Below are given the major problems which Native students encountered, ranked by both Native and non-Native students.

| Problems (with number of mentions): | | Rankings: Native | Non-Native |
|---|---|---|---|
| Adjustment to college work | 498 | 1 | 1 |
| Finances, living conditions, and employment | 346 | 2 | 6 |
| Social and recreational activities | 336 | 3 | 2 |
| Personal, psychological relations | 315 | 4 | 4 |
| Morals and religion | 255 | 5 | 10 |
| Vocational and recreation | 237 | 6 | 5 |
| Social psychological relations | 223 | 7 | 8 |
| Curriculum and teaching relations | 190 | 8 | 3 |
| Health and physical development | 183 | 9 | 7 |
| Home and family | 164 | 10 | 11 |
| Courtship; sex and marriage | 128 | 11 | 9 |

Study-related problems in ranked order included: not planning enough study time; tendency to distraction; poor preparations for lectures; lack of knowledge of study techniques; being afraid to speak up; slow rate of reading; slow in doing mathematics; worries regarding examinations; poor concentration; and limited vocabulary.

Chefurka and Simons (1971), one of the few Canadian studies, describes a "headstart" program for Natives at the University of Western Ontario. Students were given jobs in University departments as part of both an employment skills experience as well as exposure to the university environment. The program was general successful; one area of weakness was that the kinds of jobs in certain departments were routine and uninteresting such as English, romance languages, law, and nursing. Departments which offered more interesting experiences were anthropology, botany, geography and geology, supposedly ones with a "hard" science and technical orientation. The fact that the jobs were jobs, that is, providing exposure to university in a "non-committal" manner, encouraged subsequent enrollment.

Decker and Granzow (1978) describe a summer bridge program in Arizona. The study focussed on student's self-assessment of their academic skills with the following results. Percentages of "yes" responses are given.

| | |
|---|---|
| Strengths-able to: | |
| Study for sustained periods | 84% |
| Outline material effectively for examinations | 76% |
| Devote extra time for "over-learning" material | 76% |
| Listen effectively while taking notes | 84% |
| Isolate and learn definitions | 83% |
| Weaknesses-difficulties in: | |
| Minimizing distractions | 76% |
| Getting enough rest | 66% |
| Developing habit of daily review of material | 69% |
| Regular and effective use of the library | 61% |
| Avoiding "cramming" study in at the last minute | 46% |
| "Second-guessing examination questions | 55% |

Salisbury's (1971) study of a college orientation program for Alaskan students at the University of Alaska at Fairbanks dealt with certain motivational dimensions. Five reasons, of varying quality as it were, were identified among students for entering higher education. There were in order of frequency:

-Having a "you cant go home again" feeling, that one's Native community is no longer one's long-term, and/or future home.

-A desire for future economic security

-A desire to escape a sense of discomfort and marginality of Native culture

-General intellectual curiosity

### 3) Comments On the Literature

Below are some selected themes derived from the literature which stand out as particularly relevant to the experience at Trent University and may be of use in a future evaluation of the program. A hypothesis for each theme is also proposed. More literature searching and conceptual formation of hypotheses is in order.

1) Academic preparation:

Artichoker and Palmer; Decker and Granzow; Kleinfeld. Supposedly, the quality and quantity of academic background is a major predictor of performance. Hypothesis: It will have a weak, positive relationship to success.

2) Goal Orientation:

Kleinfeld; Salisbury; Artichoker and Palmer. Hypothesis: Students with more specific goal orientations and/or ones which were developed earlier will do better and/or stay in the program longer.

3) Motivation:

Artichoker and Palmer; Salisbury; Kleinfeld. The literature identifies both "push" factors (to leave community) and "pull" factors (to go to university). Hypothesis: Students with a larger number of "pull" motives will succeed to a greater degree.

**4) Social Life:**
**Artichoker and Palmer; Kleinfeld. At least two dimensions appear to be important: isolation and lack of support, and excessive social involvement such as "partying". Hypothesis: Excessive social involvement rather than isolation will be more closely associated with failure.**

5) Degree of Pre-orientation to University:
Cherfuka and Simons; Decker and Granzow; Brown. Focus here was upon a summer or, in Trent's terms, a "Pre-session" component to the bridge program. Trent has a six-week "Pre-session" which is mandatory for some students. Hypothesis: The Pre-session as a summer bridge program will improve student performance to a greater degree in "hard-skill areas" such as orientation to economic development concepts.

6) Relationship to former community and former school:
Brown; Indian Research Development; Salisbury. Hypothesis: Students from the Northern Canada and/or more isolated communities will tend to have both more community-related problems, and also return to communities more frequently at the end of complete or incomplete university experiences.

7) Institutional commitment:
Beiswenger; Brown. Hypothesis: A number of aspects of this dimension may stand improvement such as "soft" versus permanent funding, and consolidating documentation and procedures.

8) Program conceptualization:
Brown; Chefurka and Simons. Trent's program presently seems to be mixing three approaches: support or elaboration on content in other courses; specific training in academic communication skills, and introduction of new material (not used recently). Hypothesis: The models will be effective in increasing overall student performance in the order stated.

9) Individualization:
Indian Research Development. Programs appear to vary as to how much individual attention is given, as opposed to group- or class-based programming. Hypothesis: The individualization aspects of the program is more effective for measurable gains in marks, but much more difficult to implement, particularly in terms of compliance of students (e.g. keeping appointments) than class-based experiences.

**10) Specialization: Beiswenger; Indian Resource Development. Trent has both general and Native Management and Economic Development Streams for its Diploma Program. Hypothesis: Overall effectivness of the program is higher in improving performance of the specialist, management students.**

**A SPECIAL NOTE: The Mature Student Issue:**
**The literature is markedly lacking in categorical or specific treatment of students as adult learners. Many of the variables which are identified above would be relevant to any student, whether in high school or going into higher education directly from high school. On the other hand, well over half of Trent Diploma Students may be classed as mature students. They are defined with at least two year's of out-of-school experience and**

having significant family or other social responsibilities. A number, particularly in the Native Management and Economic Development Stream of the Diploma Program, have a number of years of middle-management experience in their home communities. A major challenge then, of future research, is to find the literature base which would reflect this "adult learner" aspect of formative evaluation.

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# COMPUTER-MEDIATED COMMUNICATION IN DISTANCE EDUCATION: TOWARDS A LEARNER DRIVEN SYSTEM

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*A distance education information clearinghouse is being set up in Alberta, using existing computer hardware and software. One of its main goals is to make distance delivered programming more responsive to the needs of widely dispersed learners by collecting and centralizing information on just what their needs are. A key to the success of this clearinghouse will be information input from the 85 Further Education Councils which serve the needs of learners in their respective areas of the province.*

*Un bureau central de diffusion d'information pour la formation à distance sera établi en Alberta en utilisant des ordinateurs et des logiciels existants. En rassemblant et en centralisant l'information des besoins actuels, un des principaux objectifs est d'assurer que la programmation à distance reflète les besoins de nos apprenant(e)s dispersé(e)s dans la province. Le succès de ce bureau central demeure au niveau de l'information fournie par les 85 Further Education Councils qui dèsservent les besoins des apprenant(e)s dans tous les coins de la province.*

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The term "distance education" has come to be quite closely associated with the concept "open learning," especially in cases where the learners are adults. This association of the two concepts should, in theory, indicate a state of affairs in which distance delivered education is more "open" and responsive to the needs of learners than is conventional campus-based education. In practice, however, this openness and responsiveness to the needs of learners is not always attained. One of the reasons is that it is difficult for geographically scattered learners to make their needs known in a way that will result in courses and programs being developed to meet their needs.

The result is that institutions which deliver courses at a distance plan their offerings according to some combination of:

1. occasional needs assessment surveys
2. "educated guesses" as to what distant learners want or need, and
3. the interests of the staff of the distance delivering institution.

We have, therefore, an essentially deliverer-driven system: institutions take the initiative in developing offerings, and distant learners can either take these offerings or go without.

It is unlikely that this imbalance of power between learners and deliverers of distance education can be corrected either quickly or completely. However, an information clearinghouse now being set up in Alberta will attempt to at least shift the present system in the direction of greater learner control. It will do so by collecting and concentrating information about learner needs on a continuous basis, and making this information available to distance delivering institutions in a form in which they can use it for programming decisions. This should be a significant step towards the development of a truly learner-driven system.[1]

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[1] The immediate inspiration for the development of this clearinghouse was the Organizing Distance Education Alternatives (ODEA) project, a survey which was carried out in Alberta

The Alberta clearinghouse will also facilitate information flow in the usual centre-to-periphery direction, as do other clearinghouses such as ECCTIS in Britain and the Discovery Training Network operated by the Open Learning Agency in British Columbia. However, the Alberta clearinghouse will be unusual in that it will give equal attention to information flowing inwards from the periphery to the centre — i.e., information regarding the needs of learners.

Conditions in Alberta are particularly favourable for the development of this sort of bi-directional clearinghouse. One of the crucial elements, a network of people concerned with the operation of community learning with open access at the "grassroots" level, is already in place in the form of an institution unique to Alberta, the Further Education Councils.

### Alberta's Further Education Councils as Reporters of Learning Needs

As a part of Alberta's wide-spread system of community-based education, the 85 Further Education Councils (FECs) currently in existence constitute a network of local educational agencies whose mandate is to fulfill the learning needs and desires of adult Albertans. Each council receives an administrative grant from the provincial government to offset salaries and advertising, travel, office and professional development expenses, and a program grant to support the delivery of non-credit courses to the community.

The FEC is governed by an elected executive which advises a paid coordinator, usually a part time employee. The Council operates flexibly and is heavily dependent on volunteer participation. Each local FEC is responsible for program priorization, program evaluations, local policies, and needs assessment.

The mandate of the FECs to do needs assessment in their respective areas makes their cooperation absolutely vital to the function of the information clearinghouse currently being set up. If the information regarding learner needs which is already known to each FEC coordinator is collected at one point (the information clearinghouse), then this *collected* information will be much more likely to result in action by a distance delivery institution than is the information regarding learner needs that is in the possession of any one FEC.

As a hypothetical example, suppose that FEC coordinator Jayne Buck knows that three adult learners in her area want to take a course on contemporary East European literature. She knows that this is not sufficient to justify a distance-delivered course or visits from a travelling instructor; therefore, she is not likely to report this demand to any of the institutions capable of meeting it. However, if she feeds this information into the central information clearinghouse, it may get some response; if the other 84 FECs also report an average of three people in their areas who want a similar course, the evident pool of 250 potential learners is sufficient to result in some educational institution offering a distance-delivered course.

### Structure of the Clearinghouse

Many of the FECs now have Macintosh computers, and more are acquiring them. They can now keep in touch with one another via an electronic mail system on one of the mainframe computers at the University of Alberta. Those FECs not near Datapac nodes can dial in to this mainframe over

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[1](cont'd) during 1986. One of the conclusions of this project was that poor information collation and flow was a major reason why Alberta's distance education system is, by default, controlled by the distance delivering institutions, and is not responsive enough to the needs of learners. The ODEA report recommended the establishment of an information clearinghouse of the type described here.

regular phone lines but at a flat, greatly subsidized data communications rate.

The information clearinghouse will use this existing communications network, and add to it the use of a computer conference and a database already in place on the U. of A. mainframe. The computer conference will be used for the rather loosely structured information flowing inward — from learners to FECs to clearinghouse to programmers at educational institutions. This is consonant with the notion that the system should be learner driven; rather than having to slot learner demands into predetermined categories, FEC coordinators will be able to enter their demands into the computer conference part of the clearinghouse in more or less the form they receive them. The indexing function of the conferencing software can be used by the clearinghouse manager to sort learner demands into rough categories, which will make for easier scanning by programmers at educational institutions.

## Other Functions of the Clearinghouse

The use of this clearinghouse as a continuous, province-wide needs assessment mechanism may be its most significant function, as it has the potential to move the entire field of distance education towards the ideal learner-driven status. However, besides facilitating the inward flow of information described above, the clearinghouse will also facilitate a "lateral" flow of information (among FECs), and an "outward" flow (educational institutions to FECs to learners).[2]

The lateral flow of information among FECs will also use the computer conference, as this flow of information tends to be conversational in style. The content will include, among other topics, names and content specialties of instructors willing to travel to various sites to teach courses in their specialties, and the comments of FEC coordinators who are familiar with the abilities of these instructors. It will also include discussions of innovative ideas for local programming — the sort of thing that coordinators discuss at their occasional face-to-face meetings. Programmers at educational institutions may wish to join in this conversation by asking for comments about course and program offerings that are in the rather early planning stages — a sort of "run it up the flagpole" facility.

The "outward" flow of information will make use of a database, as an efficient means of disseminating information that has already been categorized by the originating institutions. In this more conventional of clearinghouse functions an effort will be made to avoid duplicating existing services. Specifically, the extensive North America-wide listing of distance-delivered courses and programs that is available online from the Discovery Training Network (DTN) in Vancouver will not be duplicated. Rather, the Alberta clearinghouse will serve as a "gateway" to DTN, to reduce telecommunication costs. The outward-flowing information which this database will contain will be what is not available from DTN — specifically, campus-based programs within Alberta, and the more ephemeral, "extended classroom" types of distance offerings which may not be listed on DTN.

## Conclusion

This clearinghouse is being set up to be pilot tested during the 1989-90 academic year. Its specific features as described above are tentative. Since its structure has been designed to be user-flexible, its features should quickly evolve to meet new or newly-perceived needs of learners and their close-at-hand agents, the Further Education Councils.

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[2] There will undoubtably be some use of the clearinghouse by learners directly, but the experience of ECCTIS in Britain (see References) indicates that most of the use will be by learners' agents, such as the coordinators of the Further Education Councils.

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# GENDER DISCRIMINATION IN COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

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This paper explores the issue of gender discrimination in community development, raises questions and concludes with an idea for action.

Ce papier examine le problème de la discrimination sexuelle dans le développement communautaire, soulève quelques questions et suggère un plan d'action.

How do community development practitioners deal with the value dilemmas they experience as outsiders to the communities in which they work? Using a standard qualitative research approach (Bogdan & Biklin, 1982), I interviewed 25 practitioners (11 women and 14 men) to try to find answers to this question. They worked in a variety of settings and had a wealth of experience working with such groups as farmers, fishermen, women's groups, Native organizations, and poor people's groups. They worked in Maritime fishing villages, Indian Reserves, Inuit communities, rural farming communities and small Northern single-industry towns.

One theme permeated the interviews conducted with the women--that of gender discrimination. Again and again the theme arose. It was not discussed as a value dilemma. Instead, it became a major issue that raises a number of questions for practitioners, both women and men, to address. Practitioners mentioned in this article have been assigned pseudonyms, in an attempt to ensure anonymity.

## The Issue

A major value expressed by many practitioners centers on respect for the importance of people, for their point of view and experience, and for their culture, traditions and values. Given this value, the women practitioners experienced serious value conflicts with many of the communities and groups with whom they worked over the issue of gender discrimination. This issue focused on two areas:

(1) discrimination experienced by the women themselves; and
(2) discrimination encountered by and the lack of status accorded to women living in the communities in which they worked.

## Conflicting Values with the Communities

### Work conflicts

Women practitioners frequently find themselves working with male-dominated community leadership groups. Often, these leaders systematically exclude women from the decision-making process within their own communities. Brenda, a consultant, says in such instances her values as a feminist are in conflict with those of the group.

> Men are hired first. Women in these communities are battered. They aren't taken seriously. They are responsible for doing virtually everything in the community. And they don't have much visibility, or power, from where I stand as an outsider.

While most of the practitioners, both women and men, were aware of this issue, it was particularly difficult for feminists. After all, how can a feminist actively assist male-dominated community groups who are guilty of oppressing the female members of their own communities? Brenda says, " I look for opportunities to say, 'Maybe you should get some women involved.' 'Where are the women?' I just keep raising it, putting it on the agenda."

For example, in one northern community Brenda feels she can raise the issue with younger community leaders who are more open to change. With the older members, who have rigid attitudes about the status of women, she finds it best simply to avoid the issue.

This raises a controversy over how change occurs and how inequities can be reversed. Which comes first, attitude change or behavioral change? Evelyn, who works in a management position, is very clear on this subject.

> I've come to the point where one does not say one changes the attitude. One changes the behavior. The way you do that is through regulation. You cannot buy attitudinal change. It won't happen--not in our lifetime. It will happen by somebody saying "Thou shalt not!" Before, I believed you change the attitude of those decision-making men and that they would change their behavior. Bullshit. They won't. You change their behavior and then their attitudes will change.

To support her view, Evelyn refers to one federal funding program which forces community authorities to include women in the decision-making process if they want to obtain program funds. She argues this forced behavioral change will have a positive long-term effect on those communities, and that attitudinal change will follow.

While both Brenda and Evelyn agree on what they want to accomplish, the difference centers on how they achieve it. Brenda adheres to a "bottom up" approach to development, which stipulates that outsiders should not impose their viewpoints onto the community groups with whom they work, an approach which is consistent with classical community development principles. Evelyn, however, has come to believe that, in the area of equal rights for women, a "top down" approach can be justified and should be used, when necessary.

However, while personal philosophies play a part in shaping the different approaches of these two women, they are also clearly tempered by their roles. Brenda does not hold a position of direct influence. As a consultant who is hired by community leaders and visits sporadically, she does not have a mandate to instigate behavioral change. Consequently, she feels the best approach for her to take is to "pick away" and continually raise the issue in the hope community leaders will change their attitudes and begin to include women in the local decision-making process.

Evelyn, on the other hand, is speaking from the perspective of a manager in a funding program. Senior staff in such programs are in positions where they can implement "equal rights" policies.

While Evelyn's approach may be an effective one, at least in the short-term, most of the community development practitioners I interviewed were not in an organizational position to implement such an approach. How, then, can women practitioners confront and deal with this issue, particularly when they, themselves, often lack influence at both community and organizational levels?

Influence of religion on work priorities. The influence of the church, as a rigid, dogmatic force which severely restricts the role of women, surfaced repeatedly during the interviews. Brenda, who holds secular values, finds those values in conflict with the power that the church has in many communities. For example, the religious values of the church have a definite impact on the work priorities of one northern community in which she works. The younger women want more involvement in the community decision-making process. Brenda supports their position. However, because of the influence of the church, the community leaders have a different, and quite inflexible, agenda with regard to the role of women.

Brenda deals with her conflict with the church by trying to understand the role of the church in the community. She wants to talk to the priests who are part of the power structure and who control these institutions. She feels this approach is an essential first step in the process of dealing with the value conflict. The next step remains a mystery. How does a practitioner, as an outsider, help women at the local level effect change, when that change is contrary to the religious values of the community gatekeepers?

### Lifestyle Conflicts

The practitioners often worked in communities where wife battering was commonplace. It was a behaviour that occurred in communities across the country, and in many, was not censured. While both men and women practitioners openly discussed the problem, the nature of the violence was raised more often by the women practitioners. The women spoke of their feelings of powerlessness and ascribed it to their being outsiders.

As community development practitioners, they were hired to do a specific job, often with the male leaders of the community. This placed them in a agonizing position. As Sandra, who worked in an economic development role, relates:

> It is very hard to stand by and know that this abuse is going on. I'm not there in a social services capacity. I'm not a counsellor. I'm not working in the social services field. What is my responsibility? As a woman? As a feminist? How can I best support women who are going through some very difficult times? Some of the men I worked with, when they were drinking, and sometimes when they weren't drinking, they would do such terrible things. These were men that I had to work with. What is my responsibility to the women?

Most of the practitioners I interviewed were not social service workers. They lacked the training, and consequently the technical competence, to deal with social service work.

One woman, who attempted to deal with the issue, recalls being openly rebuked by the local priests who argued that "women in this town are not battered" and "go agitate somewhere else."

## Discrimination Experienced by the Women Practitioners

### Invisibility

A number of the practitioners were working, or had previously worked, in situations where they were the only woman in a group of men. Kanter (1977) notes when a woman works alone in a group of men "she is likely to be isolated, to be treated as trivial" (p. 376).

While some women found this forced invisibility offensive and degrading, Evelyn says she has been able to use it to her advantage in her development roles. Being a woman was a real advantage at the grassroots level, she argues, precisely because she was dismissed.

> I've always been the woman who could not possibly have any power, knowledge and authority and could be dismissed--which

> has given me an incredible ability to influence. Once you've been dismissed, then you can make all the input that you want. I've gone into situation after situation where I have been able to get people to come to conclusions that no one else has been able to effect, because I was a woman.

When asked if she wasn't angry at being perceived as a non-person, Evelyn replies:

> But that's exactly what a community developer should be. It should be someone you don't see, who is not imposing, who is not part of your consciousness, who you'll use as a tool. And men are so used to using women--as servants, as tools.

Mary, who functions in a higher profile consulting role, finds being perceived as a non-person in the communities repugnant. She believes, in order to be seen as competent, particularly in Northern single industry towns, women must be aggressive and expect people not to like them for quite some time. But, she says, the frustration of having to endure such a process is often not worth the effort, especially when she has a choice of places to work. As she puts it, "Why should I work with those bimbos if they won't acknowledge my existence?"

### Rejection by the Community

Some of the women encountered situations in which the men in the communities absolutely refused to work with them, specifically because they were women. Donna, reminiscing about a previous work experience in a small community, vividly describes such a situation.

> The men just wouldn't work with me. When we tried to start the community cooperative, there was enough hesitation on the part of the women, but the fishermen, my goodness. I got anonymous phone calls saying things like, "No goddam way am I working for a bunch of fat, fucking women! You want women in here telling us what to do?"

Both Donna and Mary say that, in such situations, they simply work with the women--which they say they find more interesting anyway. It is an approach that is used by women practitioners who work in all geographical regions of the country. However, I wonder if women further isolate themselves if they work only with women. Under what circumstances is this a viable approach? How much change can a practitioner make through such an approach?

Moreover, even when practitioners work only with the women, they can still encounter a backlash in the communities. One practitioner, working with a group of women to organize a women's program, found herself working in a very religious rural community. "You know," she says, "It's really hard to respect other people when they don't respect me."

## Discussion

The interviews paint a picture of women who work under some extremely difficult conditions. The hostility the women endured--of being ignored, isolated, rejected and harassed--surfaced repeatedy throughout the interviews. These discussions further indicate such hostility can have serious negative effects. Lucille, who places a high value on humour to aleviate stress, says, "You know, I've been here for six months, and I find I don't laugh anymore."

The second aspect of the issue centers on the exclusion of women from many community development programs. This brings us to a major value dilemma inherent in the community development process. If we, as practitioners, place a high value on community self-determination, how do we deal with situations in which women lack a voice in that self-determination? How do we advocate the involvement of women in the decision-making process when such involvement goes against the traditions of a community (Maguire, 1984)?

How do we confront the community leadership over issues of injustice when its support is often required for significant change to occur? How do we gain support of the leadership for change when such change will diminish its authority? How do we effect change when we, as women practitioners, are often limited in our own roles and our own organizations? More importantly, how can we be effective if we are isolated, rejected and harassed by large segments of the communities in which we work?

These questions are being resolved, in a variety of ways, by women practitioners. A great deal of experimentation is occurring across the country. Some women have decided to focus their energies and work only with women. Others feel it is important to work with both women and men. Some practitioners, like Brenda, adhere to a bottom up approach; while others, such as Evelyn, have decided to work from the top down. Some women cope well. Others find themselves blocked at all levels and eventually leave for other work.

The issue of gender discrimination in Canadian community development is part of a much larger movement. The slogan "think globally, act locally" is particularly applicable. We cannot allow ourselves to invest all our energies in one community. To do so can only result in bitterness and burnout. We will not resolve the issue of gender discrimination by changing the attitude or the behavior of the mayor, the chief, or the priests in one rural community. We are involved in a much larger and longer-term struggle. Consequently, we need to develop a cognitive framework that helps us to see the struggle on a broad, rather than on simply a local, level.

## Centre for Social Change: A Vision

Time and time again, women from across the country expressed the need for a Canadian-style Coady Institute or Highlander Centre which would provide training and support to people active in community development. As Mary says:

> We don't have a gathering point like the Coady for people in Canada who are active and want to re-tool in some way. It would be really nice to have an Institute that worked on a continuing basis and offered short-term courses and retreats. It could be a conduit for information.

It is important to develop a Centre for Social Change. Such a centre would serve two purposes: first, it would function as a vehicle for networking, as a place where people could gather to meet with others working in similar situations, discuss mutual concerns and recharge their batteries in a supportive environment; secondly, it would provide a place where they could gain knowledge and skills to help them work more effectively. In short, it could be a gathering place for reflection, analysis, support and growth for Canadians active in the community development/social change field. It could initiate activities such as professional development courses, workshops, retreats and research, and provide an information support service.

The roots of adult education in Canada are in social change movements. It is important that people engaged in such work receive active support from the adult education community.

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# ANALYSE INTERDISCIPLINAIRE DES PRINCIPALES CARACTERISTIQUES DE LA SITUATION D'AUTODIDAXIE - SYMPOSIUM

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Résumé: Les principales caractéristiques de la situation d'autodidaxie sont analysées à la lumière de trois approches -la nouvelle Communication de Bateson et de l'Ecole de Palo Alto, l'auto-éco-organisation de Varela, la psychopédagogie cognitiviste dont s'inspirent Weinstein et al.- et validées à la lumière de pratiques autodidactiques d'individus et de groupes.

Abstract: Main characteristics of the autodidactic learning phenomenon are first analyzed in the light of three prevailing approaches -Bateson and Palo Alto's New Communication, Varela's self-organization, Weinstein et al.'s cognitive educational psychology- and, subsequently, in the light of learning practices of autodidactic individuals and groups.

## LE PROBLEME

Un secteur de la recherche réalisée dans le domaine de l'autodidaxie se veut orienté vers une théorisation se rapportant aux processus d'apprentissage et d'enseignement caractéristiques de l'apprenant autodidacte. A l'intérieur de ce domaine coexistent divers courants, approches et modèles (Danis, 1988) tantôt axés sur les caractéristiques des apprenants, tantôt axés sur certains facteurs liés à l'environnement socio-éducatif. Les cadres de référence proposés jusqu'à maintenant semblent partiels, statiques, prescriptifs. Deux besoins se font alors sentir: celui de focaliser les efforts de recherche vers des aspects davantage systémiques, dynamiques et celui d'innover sur le plan de la méthodologie utilisée dans le processus de théorisation liée à l'autodidaxie. Il semble prioritaire d'étudier la situation d'autodidaxie à partir de nouveaux points de vue empruntés à diverses disciplines ayant toutes en commun les caractéristiques suivantes: être systémiques et orientées vers l'étude des interactions.

Ainsi, dans la présente étude, la situation d'autodidaxie sera analysée à partir (I) de la Nouvelle Communication de Bateson et de l'Ecole de Palo Alto, (II) de l'auto-éco-organisation de Varela et (III) de la psychopédagogie cognitiviste de Weinstein et al. Cette première analyse sera complétée par une synthèse critique permettant d'identifier les caractéristiques majeures qui sont jugées pertinentes à la lumière de pratiques autodidactiques d'individus et de groupes (IV).

Le but du symposium est d'identifier, à partir d'une approche interdisciplinaire, quelques-unes des principales caractéristiques se rapportant à la situation d'autodidaxie.

## LA METHODE

La méthode utilisée se divise en deux étapes distinctes mais complémentaires. La première étape correspond à l'analyse de la situation d'autodidaxie et de ses principales caractéristiques à partir de la spécificité de chacune des trois disciplines retenues. Cette analyse est réalisée au moyen du procédé d'abduction par

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lequel des éléments, voire des modèles, provenant d'autres champs disciplinaires sont mis en parallèle avec le domaine et l'objet étudiés. Les traditionnels processus de recherche de déduction et d'induction, qui représentent tous deux des démarches verticales (du haut vers le bas et du bas vers le haut respectivement), font ici place à un processus d'abduction, démarche horizontale-latérale. Ce procédé "qui consiste à rechercher des cas analogues obéissant aux mêmes règles" (Bateson, 1984), est particulièrement recommandé pour les démarches de recherches théoriques visant, entre autres, une révision des connaissances dans un domaine donné ou encore une identification de problèmes essentiels de recherche (Candy, 1985). La deuxième étape correspond à la synthèse critique des principales caractéristiques de la situation d'autodidaxie suggérées lors de l'étape précédente et à l'identification de celles qui se démarquent comme étant essentiels à l'explication de phénomènes observés dans des pratiques autodidactiques d'individus et de groupes.

## I - LA NOUVELLE COMMUNICATION DE BATESON ET DE L'ECOLE DE PALO ALTO- ISIS BROUILLET

Winkin (1981) utilise le terme de "nouvelle communication" pour désigner la rupture épistémologique de certains chercheurs -dont Bateson et l'école de Palo Alto- face au modèle mathématique de la communication de Shannon. Cette rupture se base sur des principes d'ordre cybernétique et systémique où la causalité est circulaire, rétroactive et l'information en est le concept majeur. L'approche systémique de la Nouvelle Communication est heuristique et n'est pas à confondre avec d'autres approches systémiques algorithmiques.

L'école de Palo Alto a développé, à partir de cette épistémologie, une axiomatique de la communication (Watzlawick et al., 1972). Le premier axiome indique que tout comportement est une communication, qu'un nouveau comportement désiré se communique (verbal ou non verbal) et, de ce fait, s'apprend. Les trois autres axiomes se rapportent à l'analyse des structures de l'interaction. Chaque individu ou groupe développe des normes phénoménologiques desquelles se dégagent des règles et des rites. Ainsi, chaque système (groupe ou individu) est unique parce qu'il a ses propres mécanismes de fonctionnement dynamique et, en même temps, chaque système participe à la création d'une grammaire de la communication et de l'apprentissage propres à sa culture.

Quant à Bateson, il considère que la nature de l'esprit et tout processus mental comme l'apprentissage et la communication, opèrent selon six critères (Bateson, 1984). Ces processus mentaux sont différents des événements matériels. Il illustre l'intégration de ces critères lorsqu'il explique deux manières d'actualiser un acte adapté. Il y a le tir à l'épaulée (carabine disposant d'un viseur) et le tir au jugé (revolver sans ajustement de visée). Dans le premier cas, le tireur, à l'intérieur même de l'acte de tirer, procède par essais-erreurs, rétroaction, jusqu'à ce que l'auto-correction soit satisfaisante. Il s'agit d'un changement interne. Dans le second cas, viser-tirer est un acte unique et l'ajustement ne peut venir qu'après le tir et, de plus, il demande au tireur qu'il se change lui-même puisqu'il doit modifier une classe d'actions. Ici, c'est toute l'opération qui se doit de changer et c'est cette opération qui est objet d'information. Il y a donc changement des règles d'apprentissage, il y a un méta-apprentissage, et c'est dans ce sens que l'apprentissage est significatif.

On retrouve, dans la situation d'autodidaxie, l'alternance et la hiérarchie des types logiques. En effet, on constate, dans le groupe comme chez l'individu, l'existence d'apprentissages procédant par essais-erreurs et d'apprentissages procédant par calibrage dans lesquels c'est bel et bien la classe d'actions ou encore des codes de comportements (groupe) ou un répertoire des règles de fonctionnement de la pensée (individu) qui sont améliorés ou corrigés. L'apprenant autodidacte devient ainsi de plus en plus habile à questionner ses règles et à modifier son répertoire, de telle sorte qu'apprendre à apprendre devient une fin en soi.

## II - L'AUTO-ECO-ORGANISATION DE VARELA - JEAN-PIERRE THEIL

Pour comprendre le fonctionnement d'un système vivant, Varela (1988) propose un modèle d'auto-éco-organisation. Pour cet auteur, parler en termes d'auto-éco-organisation, c'est considérer trois types d'éléments: un système auto-référentiel, un éco-environnement aléatoire et les relations qui définissent ces deux types par leur action réciproque. Pour l'auteur, l'étude du comportement d'un système vivant en relation avec un environnement devient critique quand il faut comprendre non pas comment le système "traite" les informations qui y sont présentées, mais plutôt comment il doit en "créer" à partir d'un environnement vide d'informations.

Varela pose qu'un système vivant ne peut être qu'auto-référentiel, i.e. 1) que la finalité des actions du système est de se maintenir en tant que système vivant, 2) que c'est la logique de fonctionnement du système qui constitue son référentiel et qui définit la pertinence d'une action, d'un événement, etc. Par ailleurs, un système vivant ne peut fonctionner qu'en étant ouvert sur un environnement. En particulier, il a besoin de connaître ce dernier pour continuer à fonctionner. Si un éco-environnement viable doit être prévisible, il est le plus souvent le lieu de surgissement aléatoire d'événements imprévisibles, ambigus et complexes que le système doit reconnaître comme devenant ou cessant d'être vitaux (informations), non pertinents (bruit) ou comme incompatibles avec sa logique de fonctionnement (interférences). Enfin, pour Varela (1986), connaître est une opération compensatrice du système qui ne cesse d'informer des événements/rencontres, i.e. de re-connaître les informations vitales et d'"apprendre" les interférences incompatibles avec sa logique de fonctionnement en transformant cette logique pour créer du déjà connu grâce, malgré et contre l'incertitude de son environnement.

La logique de l'auto-éco-organisation présente un potentiel heuristique pour mettre en forme la situation autodidactique, dans la mesure où elle apparaît comme l'espace d'interaction d'un système apprenant qui s'efforce de rendre significatives les "informations" qu'il rencontre en les informant en événements d'apprentissage. En particulier, en tant que système auto-référentiel, l'autodidacte peut être compris comme un sujet dont la finalité consiste à ne pas cesser d'apprendre. Pour lui, l'apprentissage est le voyage, non la destination. Par ailleurs, comme pour l'autodidacte, les connaissances présentes dans l'"éco-thèque" (Morin, 1986) ne peuvent être assimilées mais doivent être informées comme telles; il doit constamment y avoir transformation du mécanisme de traitement des informations. C'est un problème ardu qui s'apparente au paradoxe de Ménon et qui demande une stratégie d'apprentissage particulière qu'il s'agit d'étudier.

## III- LA PSYCHOPEDAGOGIE COGNITIVISTE DE WEINSTEIN et al. - MOHAMED HRIMECH

La recherche portant sur les stratégies cognitives tire son origine de Binet, Piaget, Dewey, Thorndike (Weinstein, 1988). Plus récemment, les études réalisées du point de vue de l'enseignement intéressées à la notion d'"apprendre à apprendre" et les études s'inspirant de la théorie du traitement de l'information ont grandement contribué au développement de ce champ spécialisé.

Sont considérées comme étant des "stratégies cognitives" les opérations et les procédures que l'apprenant peut utiliser pour acquérir, mémoriser et rappeler les différents types de savoirs et de performances. La "métacognition", elle, représente essentiellement la conscience qu'a l'apprenant de l'utilisation systématique de stratégies efficaces qu'il déploie pour apprendre.

Le fait d'aborder ainsi l'apprentissage sous l'angle des stratégies et des métastratégies utilisées à l'intérieur de processus d'une complexité variable permet d'étudier ce phénomène d'une façon très dynamique. De plus, la notion de contrôle, en particulier la notion d'auto-régulation que l'apprenant est appelé à exercer tant sur son propre processus d'apprentissage que sur son environnement éducatif permet d'analyser des éléments interactifs qui jusqu'ici ont été très peu étudiés. L'autodidacte représente très probablement l'un des sujets d'étude les plus aptes à recourir à de telles stratégies d'auto-régulation.

## IV- PRATIQUES D'INDIVIDUS ET DE GROUPES AUTODIDACTES - NICOLE TREMBLAY,ANSELME TSALA

En quoi les éléments théoriques qui précèdent éclairent-ils la situation d'autodidaxie? Les éléments théoriques en présence permettent une forme d'interprétation des données recueillies sur le terrain lors de l'étude de pratiques d'individus et de groupes autodidactes et fournissent des clefs explicatives de certains des phénomènes observés.

L'aspect interactif et non algorithmique de l'approche systémique ainsi que la dimension interactive présente dans les approches tendraient à expliquer l'absence de séquences pré-établies et prévisibles lors de la réalisation de projets autodidactiques. En effet, en regard des finalités d'apprentissage poursuivies, tant les individus que les groupes ont tendance à réajuster et à reformuler leurs objectifs en accord avec leurs désirs personnels et en fonction du contexte éducatif dans lequel ils transigent. Certains individus et groupes vont jusqu'à subordonner les objectifs à l'ordre des moyens reconnus disponibles dans l'environnement. Ce qui précède peut également être mis en rapport avec la finalité d'un système auto-organisé, à savoir, le maintien de sa logique interne, expliquant ainsi la multiplicité et la flexibilité des stratégies consenties en autodidaxie de manière à permettre à un individu ou à un groupe de se maintenir en vue de l'atteinte du but poursuivi.

L'axiomatique de l'école de Palo Alto, la fonction enactive de Varela ainsi que l'approche métacognitive de Weinstein et al. proposent des éléments explicatifs de la production de normes et de règles en cours d'apprentissage chez les autodidactes. En effet, l'autodidacte a tendance à transcender les apprentissages réalisés pour considérer les normes et les règles qui le régissent. Ces normes et ces règles semblent constituer autant d'auto-référents sur lesquels s'appuie la dynamique d'apprentissage et à partir desquels se régularise et évolue le projet, dynamique permettant tout à la fois les changements et le maintien du projet. Les concepts d'interaction et de maintien des systèmes dans un contexte aléatoire et, en particulier, l'aspect stratégique de l'apprentissage défini par les cognitivistes, en plus de proposer une analogie pertinente avec la situation générale d'autodidaxie, fournissent des éléments théoriques susceptibles d'éclairer certaines pratiques utilisées tant par les individus que les groupes. Par exemple, l'évaluation, présente tout au long du processus et fonction inhérente au processus en autodidaxie, se présenterait comme une fonction auto-régulatrice et, essentiellement, interactive, fonction à travers laquelle les événements de l'environnement (ressources disponibles) sont reconnus vitaux et significatifs compte tenu de la logique interne de fonctionnement de l'individu ou du groupe considérés comme systèmes. La complexité du contexte d'opération pourrait expliquer la diversité des stratégies d'évaluation et le caractère itératif de cette fonction. Quant à l'aspect culturel propres aux groupes autonomes, il est possible de trouver un certain rationnel tant à travers les caractéristiques d'interactions réciproques du système auto-organisé qu'avec la notion de grammaire de comportements telle que présentée en Nouvelle Communication.

L'analogie la plus forte entre l'autodidaxie et les diverses approches présentées se rapporterait sans doute au maintien de la logique interne des systèmes, maintien qui se perpétue dans un contexte aléatoire. Il est possible de proposer, pour terminer, que c'est au nom de cette logique de fonctionnement que peuvent être unifiées des fonctions habituellement dichotomisées dans les situations éducatives où l'apprentissage et l'enseignement ne se retrouvent pas comme éléments d'un même système organisateur.

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# TELECOMMUNICATIONS AND THE ADULT LEARNER
## MAXIMIZING ACCESS, EFFICIENCY AND EFFECTIVENESS THROUGH THE DESIGN OF INSTRUCTION

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Abstract. *Both message and method are important features of all instruction. However, unlike traditional instruction, telecommunications requires parity between message and method due to the expense of the technology. This presentation describes a systematic instructional design process that encourages both effective message and efficient method when using instructional telecommunications.*

*Le message et la mthode sont, tous deux, des lments importants en matire d'instruction. Cependant, contrairement aux mthodes traditionnelles d'instruction, l'apprentissage distance suppose la parit du message et de la mthode en raison du cout de la technologie. Cet expos dcrit un projet systmatique de'laboration de mthode pdagogique qui dveloppe la fois un message efficace et une mthode performante dans le domain de l'apprentissage distance.*

The adult learning century is before us. Information and knowledge have replaced goods and property as the driving commodities of this new century. In contrast to the commodities of the past, the new commodities are in abundant supply. The new scarcity is time, but with a familiar barrier--distance. Too little time and too much distance threaten access to the commodities which hold the key to a quality and prosperous future in the twenty-first century.

Technology created the information society and with technology, we can respond to the challenges of time and distance through a partnership of telecommunications and instructional design technologies; with the former addressing the barrier of distance, and the later the scarcity of time.

Unlike traditional instruction in which message takes precedence over method, the costs of instructional telecommunications requires parity between method and message. Instructional design technology provides a system for achieving this parity, maximizing the effectiveness of the message while minimizing the expense of the method through the systematic application of learning theory to instructional practice (Reigeluth 1983).

This presentation applies the instructional systems design process to instructional telecommunications based upon an analysis of the media and delivery systems available, learning objectives, and instructional strategies.

### TELECOMMUNICATIONS MEDIA

Three broad categories of media used for instructional telecommunications are video, audio and computer-based technologies, each with unique strengths supporting the reintegration of the teaching learning acts at a distance (Keegan 1986).

The attributes of video include concreteness, realism, full motion and the multi-modal presentation of information. The concreteness of pictures, as opposed to the abstraction of words or numbers facilities the association process required for information learning, recall of rules and concepts, and supports the transfer of previous learning to realistic situations (Schramm 1977). Full motion is critical when the learning requires the analysis of multiple and related movements or the demonstration of processes (Burns 1976). Video offers multi-modal presentation since information can be presented in any of three modes, digital, iconic or analogue, providing instantaneous control over the stimuli presented at any time. Finally the realism provided by video supports both the acquisition of social skills through examples discriminating between correct and incorrect behaviors (Young 1969) and learning at the receiving level of the affective domain by offering realistic vantages not otherwise accessible.

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The audio technologies provide for immediate interchange among students and between student and teacher. Holmberg (1986) supports the use of a "guided didactic communication" style which provides either a real or simulated conversation-like interaction between student and instructor. He suggests that a conversational tone strengthens the distant student's feelings of relationship with the educational provider which in turn effects feelings of personal involvement, motivation and eventually, subject matter relevance. Audio is the least expensive technology for both the production and delivery phases and unlike computer technology, does not require compatible equipment and software.

Although lacking the concreteness and full motion of video and the conversational tone of audio, computer technologies offer instant, interactive, action-oriented learning experiences. Computers can be designed to provide immediate knowledge of results thus reinforcing learning while alerting the learner to potential misunderstandings or misinterpretations (Bonner 1983). Computers can accomodate for individual differences in learning styles, entering knowledge and abilities and analyze student responses and prescribe instructional strategies and resources.

## DELIVERY SYSTEMS

All telecommunications media can utilize any of a variety of delivery systems, each with its own unique attributes for reaching particular audiences. Four major classification of delivery systems include broadcast, point-to-point, cable and recorded formats.

Broadcast systems are systems in which the signals radiate in all directions, offering the largest possible area of reception within a defined geographic area (Marsh, 1982). Transmission and reception of broadcast signals require special antennas, the size of which depends upon the frequency used, and ultimately the distance required. Broadcast distance can range from a radius of several hundred miles through a full power transmitter to fifteen miles through a low power or Instructional Television Fixed Service (ITFS) transmitter. The advantage of full or low power broadcast is simply access, since most homes in the developed world have access through traditional television sets. However the expense of transmission and government regulations limit access to full power broadcast technologies, thus requiring partnerships between educational institutions and broadcast stations. Low power television is a more realistic alternative for educational institutions serving a large urban population with a radius of 15 to 30 miles, since home reception of low power is possible. Although ITFS is another option for short distances, the cost of receivers and modulators required for reception makes this an unrealistic option for home delivery, but perhaps a practical option for educational or industrial centers. Repeaters linking ITFS and low power networks can increase the potenial transmission range. In the United States, the Federal Communications Commission (FCC) assigns frequencies via a lottery system, while reserving a band of ITFS frequencies for instructional use.

Point-to-point transmission relies upon waves radiating in a focused beam, either through land-based microwave systems or space satellites. A land-based microwave reaches a distance of approximately 25 miles, but can extend farther through microwave relay links. Communications satellites orbit the earth in a geostationary position fixed over the earth's equator. These can transmit to an area encompassing about one-third of the earth's surface, but can reach the entire earth's surface with the use of satellite repeaters. Although reception of microwave or satellite signals requires special receive dishes, satellite downlinks are quite common in homes as well as schools and work sites. Like ITFS, microwave reception is a more costly enterprise.

Cable reception relies upon a cable to carry the signal between transmitting and receiving sites. The cable can be either an electrical based coaxial cable or a light-based fiber optics cable. Although much more expensive to install than coaxial cable, fiber optics has considerably more capacity terms of speed, quality and amount of information transmitted. Cable is used for full motion video as well as for telephone communications. A telephone network can be established through a "bridge" which can link ten to twenty sites to provide simultaneous communications among the participants.

The recorded formats include magnetic tape and optical disc. These can be used to store video, audio or digital information. Magnetic tape is the cheapest to produce and can be erased and reused allowing information to be recorded locally through any one of the distribution systems discussed above. Video and audio information can be recorded locally onto cassette recorders and digital information downloaded onto a personal computer. Optical discs offer many advantages including instant access, increased storage capacity with full or slow motion capability, and nearly perfect quality. However, the distant distribution of optical discs is possible only through the postal service since local recording features are currently unavailable.

Each distribution system can transmit voice, data, and/or video. Although the broadcast and point-to-point systems are identified primarily with full motion video, each contain subcarriers which provide for the simultaneous transmission of digital and/or analogue information. Although subcarriers may require special equipment to receive, the transmission costs are considerably less than those of full motion video. When full motion is not required, telephone systems and subcarriers can be used to transmit video and graphics information through slow scan or compressed video technology. Each distribution system can be integrated to combine the various advantages of the different systems. Cable systems frequently use a combination of satellite and broadcast signals to provide programming which originates from a variety of international, regional and local sources. The Oklahoma State Televised Instruction System uses a network made up of ITFS, low power, microwave, satellite and broadcast systems.

Achieving cost efficiency depends upon the requirements of the audience. Satellite systems may be the best alternative for a large geographically diverse audience, whereas a microwave network or a telephone system with a connecting bridge may best serve a small geographically diverse audience. Cable or braodcast television may best serve a large urban population; face-to-face instruction in combination with recorded delivery systems may best serve a small urban population.

## SELECTING INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES

Responding to the preponderance of no significant difference findings when comparing various instructional strategies and media, Weston and Cranton (1986) and Chu and Schramm (1976) suggest that learning depends upon the appropriateness of the design of the instruction and strategies utilized for each learning objective. Gagne (1972) has identified four major types of learning objectives common to all contents including 1) knowledge and comprehension, 2) analysis, synthesis, and evaluation, 3) psychomotor and 4) affective learning.

Weston and Cranton (1986) developed the following research-based guidelines for matching strategies and learning objectives. They propose that the instructor-centered strategies including lecture, questioning and demonstration are best suited for knowledge, comprehension, psychomotor learning and learning at the receiving level of the affective domain. The interactive strategies include class discussion, discussion groups, group projects, and peer teaching. These strategies support higher cognitive learning including analysis, synthesis and evaluation as well as learning at the responding, valuing and characterization levels of the affective domain. Individualized learning methods include programmed, modularized and computer instruction and provide for individualized learning experience with regular immediate feedback. Individualized strategies can be either instructor-centered or interactive. Experiential learning strategies provide students with the opportunity to perform in real or simulated settings and include laboratory methods, role playing, simulations and/or games, and drill and practice. Experiential strategies support all types of learning objectives.

## DESIGNING INSTRUCTION

Rather than relying upon the most familiar strategies, educators should select the strategy which is most appropriate for the type of learning required by the content. Once the learning strategy has been selected, the message can be designed to fit the method and the media used. The following guidelines can be used for the design of video, audio and computer-based instruction.

Because video-based instruction offers little opportunity for interaction, the instructional design can compensate low interaction instruction, this offering many advantages of teacher-centered instruction.

The organization of the content affects learning (Winn 1981). One type of organizational schema, advanced organizers appear to affect the "incorporability and longevity of meaningful learning "through the introduction of relevant concepts before, during and immediately following instruction (Ausubel, p. 154). Since excessive note taking during a presentation can interfere with learning, course notes should be designed to accompany a video presentation (Saettler, 1968). These notes should be designed to provide the learner with space for recording comments.

All learners fail to attend to instruction at various intervals, a particular problem with low interaction media. Therefore, frequent stimulus change serves as an "attention-gaining device". These changes can include alternating between printed and visual information, between expository and student response formats, between first person with the instructor talking directly to the student and third person using interviews, role plays or drama; and through frequent changes in scenes and narrators. However, attention-gaining devices often interfere with learning when used without a legitimate pedagogic function.

Television is a very dense medium and presents more information than the viewer can attend to. Cueing strategies which employ the use of simple external stimuli can emphasize and direct attention to "key" information. Cueing devices include the use of arrows, pointers, zooms, verbal repetition and the use of inserted questions.

The storage and retrieval of information depends upon the interaction of digital (words or numbers), analogue (music or sound), and iconic (pictures) codes (Schramm 1977). Since television can make use of all codes, the manner in which the stimuli are presented influences learning. The use of at least two codes to present the same information can facilitate learning, while competing information interferes with learning. (Nugent, 1983).

The use of inserted questions and complementary activites in the form of a study guide provides the active participation which contributes to learning. Although video provides only linear feedback, the presentation can provide the student with the correct response, thus enhancing retention and preventing potential misunderstandings.

Audio-based instruction provides the interaction opportunities required for learning within the higher cognitive and affective domains. However because listener fatigue is more problematic when using audio alone, Monson (1978) suggests that the proper design of audio interaction can eliminate learner fatigue. Important audio design features include humanizing strategies such as attending to first names, creating an informal conversational atmosphere, and setting learner expectations; increasing opportunities for student participation with the use of group interaction strategies; offering variety within the presentation through a short segment format; and providing opportunities for participant feedback at regular and frequent intervals.

Computer-based instruction combines the advantages of individualized, experiential and interactive strategies. The design of computer instruction can highlight these through branching, personalization, pacing, simulation strategies, and the automated management of instruction.

The design of computer software for the adult learner can compensate for individual differences through branching features. A computer can test entering knowledge in a pretest and then branch the student to the appropriate level of instruction. Likewise computer instruction can be designed to analyze responses and direct the learner to the appropriate instruction based upon learning style, preference or performance.

Because personalizing the context of content facilitates learning, computer instruction can be designed to relate the content to the unique experiences and interests of the students by incorporating background information about the student into the lesson (Ross, et. al. 1985).

Unlike video, computer instruction offers a variety of pacing options, ranging from totally external pacing to total student pacing. Belland, et. al (1985) suggest that pacing strategies can affect both attention and motivation.

Computer simulations provide interactive problem-solving experiences in a risk free environment reinforcing the transfer of previous learning. Abt Associates (cited in Ausburn, 1974) state that simulation experiences should be representative of the real situation, easily understood, and should focus upon the significant features of the experience represented providing the student with the ability to understand and control the real life conditions depicted by the model. Simulations can be designed to provide students with experiences of gradually increasing difficulty since the learner's "subsequent achievement will increase as the amount of instructional stimuli increases" (Dwyer, p. 160).

Instructional computer software can be designed to provide both instructor and student with a variety of feedback which can be used to assess both student performance as well as instructional effectiveness. Computer instruction can diagnose learning problems and prescribe new learning activities, provide motivation through feedback, and offer counseling and remediation (McCombs 1985).

Telecommunications instruction can recreate most traditional classroom experiences through the integration of the various mediated delivery systems. However, instructional telecommunications requires a scientific approach to the instructional process focusing equally upon both message and method. The instructional design process provides the system for bridging learning research and instructional practice. Although the system exists, the application of learning research is still a random process, relying upon research within face-to-face settings using primarily nonadult populations. The adult learning century cannot happen with access. Telecommunications provides access, but at a price. Research must focus upon the design of instructional telecommunications to ensure access through efficient, effective instruction. This presentation offers only a possible introduction, the rest of the story is still to be written.

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# REACHING THE ADULT LEARNER THROUGH TELEVISION

## An Evaluation of a Statewide Telecourse Program

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The University of Oklahoma

An evaluation of the 1988 Summer Telecourse Project in Oklahoma examines the successful cooperation between higher education and public television. Thirteen member institutions of the Higher Educational Telecommunications Association (HETA) joined with the Oklahoma Educational Television Authority (OETA) to provide a record number of telecourse hours (200 over eight weeks) to a record number of summer students (2,457).

Une évaluation du Plan d'Apprentissage à Distance pour l'été 1988 en Oklahoma porte sur le succès de la coopération entre l'éducation an niveau supérieur et la télévision publique. Treize institutions, membres de l'Association pour 'Apprentissage à Distance (HETA), se sont associées aux Responsables du Télé-Enseignement en Oklahoma (OETA) pour fournir un nombre record d'heures d'apprentissage à distance (200 sur 8 semaines) à un nombre record d'étudiants de la session d'été (2,457).

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As more and more adults are attempting to juggle their careers with attendance in college classes, educational television, in particular the telecourse, is becoming an increasingly important learning opportunity. Many adult students require additional flexibility in class scheduling and in the availability of institutional resources. The telecourse delivery methodology allows institutions to provide this educational alternative for the adult returning to college.

Telecourses also provide new opportunities for faculty.

> "This transformation of the television course from a curiosity to an accessible and powerful instructional resource has not gone unnoticed by faculty. Today, hundreds of faculty from across the country teach television courses every term. Why? According to many faculty, television courses offer them the opportunity to reach new students, to take on a new professional challenge, and to adapt unique educational materials to meet local educational needs."[1]

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** This research was supported by the Oklahoma Research Center for Continuing Professional and Higher Education and the College of Education at the University of Oklahoma.

Much of the value of television courses lies in the evaluation and understanding of such courses as part of the higher education process.[2] A number of studies have been completed providing information regarding the effectiveness of the telecourse format and the characteristics of telecourse students. Few studies have attempted to evaluate the effectiveness of a telecourse delivery system within the framework of higher education. Issues such as incentives for faculty involvement, institutional support for telecourse students and the nature of programming time are integral to the success of telecourse programs, yet these factors have been largely ignored in the literature.

The focus of this study is upon the management of a telecourse delivery process as utilized by the Higher Educational Telecommunications Association (HETA). HETA is a consortium of Oklahoma colleges and universities (with one Arkansas member institution) which utilize telecourses as a tool for distance learning.

During the Summer 1988 academic semester, 13 member institutions of HETA joined with the Oklahoma Educational Television Authority (OETA) in providing college credit telecourses as part of the regular daytime schedule on the statewide public television network. OETA provided weekday broadcast time from 9am to 3pm during the Summer 1988 semester, May 16 through August 20. This time period was devoted exclusively to the broadcast of telecourses.

The evaluation of the Summer Program was developed using Bergquist's action-research and illuminative models of evaluation.[3] The survey instrument for students was developed using the design model of Morris, Fitz-Gibbon and Henerson.[4] The faculty questionnaire was patterned after a survey of talkback television faculty in 1986.[5] The collected data was analyzed and reported to the HETA membership and to a Telecourse Faculty Workshop sponsored by HETA held in February 1989. Both summative and formative evaluations were developed.

## STUDENT SURVEY RESULTS

When using number of course offerings, number of institutions, and number of students enrolled as criteria, the Summer Telecourse Project was considered to be successful. Twenty-five telecourses were offered and broadcast -- an increase of 127% from the 11 telecourses offered in the Summer 1987 semester. The number of participating HETA colleges and universities increased from 6 to 13 -- an increase of 117%. The number of students enrolled increased 141%, from 1,020 in Summer 1987, to 2,457 in Summer 1988.

During the 1988 Summer Telecourse Project, 2,457 students were enrolled at 13 HETA member institutions. Of these students, 795 returned surveys for this study -- a return rate of 32%. Because the surveys were administered during the last week of class, students who had dropped their telecourse were not surveyed.

The demographic characteristics of the Summer Telecourse Project students were similar to those of previous semesters' students. The typical Oklahoma summer telecourse student is a caucasian female between 22 and 41 years of age who attends college on a part-time basis. The reporting of demographic information varied considerably from one institution to another. Only 6 of the 13 institutions submitted complete demographic data, which represented 69% of the total student population.

The majority of students surveyed had previously attended college -- 86% reported prior college experience. Over half of the total number of students (54%) indicated they attended college within the past year. Eight-percent of the respondents had never attended college before, while 12% had not attended college for seven years or more. A Pearson r coefficient showed no relationship between the nature of college experience and learner confidence as measured by expected grade.

More than half of the students (51%) learned of their telecourse from a printed class schedule bulletin. "Work conflict" (44.8%) and "Prefer home" (14.9%) were the reasons mentioned most often for taking the telecourse. Most of the students (94%) indicated they utilized the over-the-air broadcast on OETA or a showing of the telecourse on cable as their primary means of viewing, although 49.1% of the students reported using the schools' learning resource centers at least once for viewing programs.

## FACULTY SURVEY RESULTS

One-hundred faculty members taught telecourses during the Summer Telecourse Project. Of these, 82 returned surveys -- a return rate of 82%. Most of the faculty (68%) were teaching a telecourse for the first time. This is comparable to the national figure of 72% of telecourse faculty teaching for the first time,[6] which is not surprising when considering the increase of new telecourse offerings during the 1988 Summer Telecourse Project (from 11 in 1987 to 25 in 1988). A majority of the faculty (74%) volunteered to teach their telecourse. There was no relationship found between voluntary participation and attitude toward the experience.

Faculty attitudes were generally positive toward telecourse teaching. Eighty-percent indicated they would volunteer to teach a telecourse again. Many of the faculty respondents (44%) indicated they felt the workload for the telecourses was the same as the equivalent on-campus class, however, they believed the quality of the work was different. They cited an uneven workload for the telecourses within the semester ("feast or famine"). These faculty also felt the quality of work was different due to a "different set of problems" attributed to telecourse students -- problems of a more personal rather than academic nature. Those faculty who felt the telecourse workload was greater than on-campus classes indicated the necessity of prompt feedback and reliance upon mail and telephone communication for interaction. While they themselves felt parity with on-campus classes, some faculty believed that their peers felt the workload for telecourses was much less than for on-campus classes. A Pearson r correlation coefficient showed a strong relationship between willingness to teach a telecourse again and the perception of the faculty's colleagues toward telecourses.

For most of the faculty, telecourses were considered part of their teaching load. One institution, however, offered telecourses as overload teaching. These faculty were paid separately and the telecourses were not considered part of the departmental teaching load.

Only about a third (34%) of the faculty respondents indicated they received any special preparation or training for teaching telecourses. There was no relationship between such preparation and faculty attitude toward teaching telecourses.

## ACADEMIC OFFICER INTERVIEW RESULTS

The chief academic officers interviewed perceived that the faculty workload for telecourses was equivalent to that of on-campus classes. They also felt that their institution rewarded telecourse and on-campus teaching equally. These results are consistent with the faculty responses regarding workload and compensation. All of the academic officers interviewed were committed to continuing the teaching of telecourses.

Support for the development of an in-service training program for telecourse faculty was indicated by all the academic officers. This included the provision of release time and travel funding for the faculty members to attend training. They felt such a training program should emphasize the student/faculty relationship -- specifically the counseling and mentoring roles of the telecourse faculty, options for interacting with telecourse students, and using the telephone and written correspondence to engage the student in learning.

## TECHNICAL STAFF INTERVIEW RESULTS

The telecourse coordinators, or the technical support staff, discussed an increasing pressure on services as a result of telecourse offerings. Such services included the use of learning resource centers for videotape viewing and more faculty demands for assistance such as test proctoring, answering telephone questions, and faculty development activities.

Support from HETA and OETA was given high marks by the coordinators. Suggestions for improvement included: more air time, a more timely broadcast schedule (many current broadcast hours are in the early morning, i.e. 6:30am), more information regarding telecourse fees, greater diversity in programs offered, and a more systematic method of scheduling telecourses.

## CONCLUSIONS

Judging by the increases in number of enrollments, telecourses offered, and broadcast time devoted to telecourses, the 1988 Oklahoma Summer Telecourse Project was successful. The responses of the telecourse students, faculty, and administrators also indicate satisfaction with the project. The increased broadcast time by OETA was important for the generation of more enrollments and the success of the

Project.

Several areas of concern, however, deserve continuing investigation. The reward system used for telecourse faculty on all campuses should be formally documented and shared with HETA representatives. They, in turn, should share this information with faculty and administrators on their own campuses. Equal treatment of telecourse teaching versus on-campus teaching is a pertinent issue.

The implementation of a telecourse faculty development program is important to the faculty and is supported by administrators. Such a program would focus upon mentoring skills, effective telephone communication, and improving faculty-student interaction opportunities. A similar program for telecourse coordinators is also in order.

The provision of adequate faculty support, including videotape viewing facilities, is critical. If campus viewing facilities are inadequate, they should be expanded to accommodate the increasing need. A telecourse coordinator on each campus is important for the facilitation of support activities for both faculty and students.

In conclusion, the 1988 Oklahoma Summer Telecourse Project indicates that telecourses are well integrated in terms of the participation of experienced faculty, the commitment of all participants (students, faculty, administrators and staff), and the perception of faculty and students that telecourses are equal to on-campus courses in terms of difficulty and workload.

Further study should be done on the marketing of telecourses, including how the students are first contacted, what the students' attitudes are toward telecourses, and how to improve demographic profiles of telecourse students.

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Notes:

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2. Wells, Stuart, Evaluation Criteria and the Effectiveness of Instructional Technology in Higher Education, *Higher Education*, 1976, Vol. 5, pp. 253-275.

3. Bergquist, William, *A Handbook for Faculty Development* , Vol. 2, 1980.

4. Henerson, Marlene E., Lynn Lyons Morris, and Carol Taylor Fitz-Gibbon, How to Measure Attitudes, Beverly Hills, CA., Sage Publications, 1978.

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# A STUDY OF ALUMNI FROM FACULTIES OF EDUCATION

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## Abstract

This study reports on the extent to which graduates from three faculties of education in Ontario became involved in teaching adults six years after graduating. This presentation examines the implications of the study to adult educators and to CASAE.

## Résumé

Cette étude rend compte de la participation des diplômés de trois facultés d'éducation en Ontario dans l'enseignement aux adultes, six ans après leur graduation. Cette présentation examine les implications de l'étude pour les éducateurs des adultes et pour ACÉÉA.

## Background to the Study

Numerous documents and research surveys have pointed out the increasing number of adults who are participating in educational programs, both formal (credit) and non-formal (non-credit). (CAAE, 1982; Devereaux, 1985; Davie, 1986; and Waniewicz, 1976). The Government of Ontario, notably the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Colleges and Universities, has provided additional supporting evidence of the extent to which adults are participating in educational activities (see references). The documentation from these and other sources have especially focused on adult participation in programs which are provided by publicly supported institutions such as schools, colleges and universities. The public demand for more educational programs has paralleled the need for more instructors/teachers to teach in these programs. One potential source of such teachers of adults are those who are certified as elementary or secondary school teachers.

This study presents recent research which examines the extent to which such school teachers actually end up by teaching adults, either on a part-time or full-time basis; and the actual or potential contribution to adult education provided by faculties of education in Ontario. The literature base of the study relates to such concepts as "teaching", "participation", "motivation", "transference of skills" and "training".

## Methodology of the Study

This overall study had two parts to it.

1. The first part was a mailed questionnaire sent to the nine faculties of education in the province of Ontario. The purpose of the survey was to determine the extent to which such faculties offer (or plan to offer) an option of adult education within their

elementary or secondary teacher preparation programs. This included the option of working with adults as part of the teaching practicuum.

2. The second and major part of this overall study was a survey of the graduates from the three largest faculties of education in the province, namely, the universities of Queen's, Toronto and Western Ontario. A questionnaire was sent to those persons who graduated from these three institutions in the years 1979 and 1980. It was thought that a span of six or more years would be sufficient to allow these certified teachers to establish themselves and to begin teaching adults, if they were inclined or had the opportunity to do so. The questionnaire asked questions about:
    - the graduates' teaching career, including whether or not they began teaching children and youth immediately after graduating;
    - the extent to which they became involved in teaching adults;
    - the extend to which they would like to increase their commitment to working with adults.

**Findings of the Study**

1. Survey of faculties of education. This study reports that few such faculties are offering courses or practiccum options in the field of adult education to their students who are preparing for certification as school teachers. However, the potential role of such faculties in preparing teachers to work with older learners seems worth exploring (Draper and Keating, 1978).
2. Survey of graduates from faculties of education. A total of 378 questionnaires were returned from the graduates of the three participating universities. Only a few of the findings are reported here.
    - 43% of the respondents have taught adults since they graduated in 1979 or 1980;
    - Of those who have not as yet had the experience of teaching adults since graduating, 34% said that they would like to have the experience of doing so;
    - Most of the teachers who are working with adults are employed by boards of education and community colleges;
    - Subjects which are most often taught are: English as a Second Language, English, Mathematics, Science, Physical Education, Computer Studies, Business and Family Studies
    - Most teachers of adults in this study were employed part-time for 3-6 hours a week.
    - Of the 8% that said that they would like to increase their teaching hours with adults, most said that they wanted to teach over 25 hours per week or full-time.
    - A few of the new graduates actually began their teaching career teaching adults.

Many more findings arose from the study but it is obvious that a considerable number of teachers with school teachers certificates become involved in teaching adults within a relatively short period of time after graduating from faculties of education. Furthermore, a large percentage say that they would welcome the experience of teaching adults on a part-time basis.

More research is required about the process by which people, and teachers in particular, enter into the realm of adult education. Especially, more information is required about this special group of part-time teachers of adults (Draper, 1989).

This study has implications to the overall theme and sub-themes of the 1989 CASAE conference, for example, to distance education, needs analysis, learning in the workplace, experiential learning, self-directed learning, pre-service and in-service education and qualitative research.

## Questions for Further Discussion

At a more detailed presentation of this research, a number of topics are open for further discussion, e.g.

1. What further research needs to be done on the part-time instructors of adults? What information about this group would especially be of interest to adult educators?
2. In what ways might the part-time instructors of adults be further drawn into the field of adult education?
3. In what ways can a professional organization such as CASAE support the work of "educators in transitions" (might a special session with such teachers be organized for the 1990 annual meeting of CASAE?)
4. What are the pros and cons for encouraging faculties of education to give more time and attention to adult education within their certification programs? Should CASAE be developing a position on this?
5. What kind of 'learning at a distance' material might be most appropriate or relevant to the part-time teachers of adults and/or 'teachers in transitions'?

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# L'APPRENTISSAGE DE L'ADULTE AU MUSEE: SON IDENTIFICATION

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## RESUME

Rappel des problèmes posés par l'identification de l'apprentissage spontané de l'adulte au musée. - Description d'une grille permettant cette identification. - Problèmes non résolus par cette grille. - Esquisse de solution à ces nouveaux problèmes.

## ABSTRACT

The usual problems related to the identification of adult learning during a museum visit. - Description of an instrument designed to do this identification. - New problems discovered with this instrument. - A possible solution to these problems.

## Introduction

Cerner, identifier l'apprentissage est toujours un problème, à moins qu'on n'aie provoqué celui-ci dans des conditions contrôlées et que l'on se contente de vérifier si l'on a obtenu ce que l'on cherchait. C'est une approche que l'on a longtemps pratiquée, mais qui ne nous semble pas appropriée dans les situations d'apprentissage spontané comme la situation muséale. Dans cette dernière, l'adulte est en effet libre de son activité et, à moins de le contraindre, ses apprentissages se font à l'insu de l'éducateur-muséologue et souvent dans des directions insoupçonnées (Miles et al., 1982). L'étude de ces apprentissages pose donc un problème d'approche. Il faut abandonner l'approche behavioriste et s'orienter vers une approche naturiste.

Dans cette optique, nous avons recueilli les verbalisations d'une cinquantaine de visiteurs adultes qui observaient des exhibits des sciences naturelles. Nous avons par la suite eu un entretien ouvert avec ces visiteurs pour approfondir avec eux la signification du matériel qu'ils nous avaient livré. C'est à partir de la dactylographie de ce matériel que nous avons étudié l'apprentissage.

## Un premier problème

Un premier problème est de classifier les apprentissages identifiés. Nous avions repéré une série de classifications, celle de Merizow (1985), celle de Fry et Kolb (1979), celle de Donald (1985), développées pour étudier l'apprentissage des adultes, mais aussi celles de Bloom (1956) et de Gagné (1970)

élaborées en pensant à l'apprentissage scolaire et enfin, celle de Gurian (1982), conçue pour le monde muséal.
Nous avons dû rejeter celle de Gurian parce que trop peu précise. Gurian ne distingue que deux types d'apprentissage: un apprentissage du genre synthèse et un apprentissage du genre mise en réserve d'éléments d'information. Il faut reconnaître que ces deux types d'apprentissage se retrouvent dans notre matériel, mais ces regroupements sont trop larges et laissent échapper des différences qui nous semblent importants.

Quant aux classifications de Gagné et de Bloom, de par leur nature même, elles suggèrent un contexte, par exemple, une activité intellectuelle poussée comme la résolution de problèmes complexes (Gagné) ou une situation scolaire, c'est-à-dire d'acquisition dans le cadre d'un programme enseigné (Bloom), qui fausse au départ la signification de l'apprentissage réalisé au musée.

Nous avons par contre pu emprunter des éléments à ces classifications, de même qu'à celles de Merizow, Donald, Kolb et Fry, sans toutefois en garder le contexte.

Après une première lecture du matériel recueilli, nous avons réalisé que l'apprentissage devait être étudié en même temps que l'ensemble du fonctionnement intellectuel et affectif du visiteur, parce que, sans ce fonctionnement, il perdait sa véritable signification.

Pour bien cerner l'ensemble du fonctionnement, nous avons identifié trois secteurs: un secteur affectif et deux secteurs intellectuels, l'un rationnel, l'autre imaginatif. Pour ces trois secteurs, nous avons ensuite établi la série de catégories suivantes:

manifester
constater
identifier
se rappeler
associer
distinguer - comparer
saisir
expliquer - justifier
résoudre - modifier
s'orienter
vérifier
évaluer
suggérer

## Quelques remarques sur ces catégories

1. Certaines catégories ne semblent pas utiles dans l'un des trois secteurs. C'est le cas, par exemple, de la catégorie "manifester", qui n'a jamais servi dans le secteur "fonctionnement rationnel". Nous nous demandons si l'absence de matériel correspondant à de telles catégories tient au

fonctionnement humain ou si cette absence est due au fait que les exhibits observés par les visiteurs étaient des exhibits de sciences naturelles, ces catégories servant lorsque nous aurons du matériel recueilli dans des musées de beaux arts ou d'histoire et d'ethnologie.

**2.** Certaines des catégories d'opération nous sont apparues comme régissant les opérations des autres catégories et, pour cette raison, elles nous sont apparues comme appartenant à la métacognition.

**3.** L'apprentissage peut apparaître dans n'importe laquelle des catégories. Il ne forme donc pas un type de fonctionnement intellectuel particulier, rangé dans une catégorie spéciale.

Etudier l'apprentissage à partir d'une telle grille permet de le placer dans son contexte. Celui-ci est le réseau formé par le fonctionnement rationnel, le fonctionnement imaginatif et le fonctionnement affectif. L'utilisation d'une telle grille permet également d'étudier les interactions entre ces réseaux et leur contribution à l'apprentissage.

## Un second problème

Afin d'assurer la rigueur de notre analyse, nous n'avons compté comme apprentissages que les acquisitions nouvelles évidentes. En procédant ainsi, nous en avons certainement négligé plusieurs. Pour l'instant, nous n'avons aucun moyen de savoir quelle proportion nous a échappé, ni si tous les types d'apprentissage nous ont échappé également.

Les façons habituelles de procéder dans les études muséologiques qui consistent à interroger le visiteur une fois la visite terminée sans l'avoir averti au moment de son entrée au musée, posent des problèmes à notre avis plus nombreux et plus graves.

Tout d'abord, on note qu'ainsi interrogé, le visiteur se rappelle d'un nombre très faible d'apprentissages comparé à ce que nous avons pu identifier dans les commentaires qu'il fait sur les exhibits au moment où il les regarde. Ce faible taux de rappel peut être attribué à plusieurs causes. Les principales nous semblent les suivantes.

En premier lieu, une surcharge de la mémoire. Pendant sa visite l'adulte a en effet vu tant de choses qu'il n'a pas pu les traiter de façon à les mettre toutes en mémoire.

De plus, n'étant pas incité à répéter ou à classifier, ses acquisitions ont peu de chances de passer dans la mémoire à long terme.

Enfin, il y a intervention de la mémoire sélective, qui semble jouer de deux façons:

a) L'adulte a tendance à se rappeler les éléments qui l'ont frappé, mais qu'il n'a pu intégrer à des connaissances qu'il possède déjà.

b) Il a également tendance à ne rapporter que les nouveaux acquis qu'il maîtrise bien, de crainte de paraître confus et intellectuellement incompétent.

## Une esquisse de solution

Si le rappel des apprentissages, dès la visite terminée paraît faible, par contre, il semble meilleur quelques jours plus tard et les apprentissages recolés sont de nature différente. Ils sont plus complexes et davantage reliés aux activités professionnelles de l'adulte. C'est, de toute façon, ce que nous avons pu observer en dépouillant des comptes rendus rédigés trois ou quatre jours après une visite.

En considérant les trois façons de recueillir les apprentissages: pendant l'observation des exhibits, immédiatement après et quelques jours plus tard, il nous semble que la meilleure approche consisterait à utiliser et à intégrer les résultats recueillis à ces trois moments. Nous sommes consciente cependant qu'une telle intégration pose des problèmes épineux. Mais nous croyons pouvoir contourner ceux-ci en réalisant des études de cas, c'est-à-dire, en investiguant et en comparant les apprentissages d'une même personne dans les trois situations, tout en s'aidant des explications qu'elle peut fournir dans des entretiens.

Nous croyons important de vérifier la valeur de cette dernière approche parce qu'à notre avis, la visite au musée est l'une des situations où il est le plus facile d'étudier l'apprentissage spontané de l'adulte. Cette situation est en effet limitée dans le temps et dans l'espace, relativement standardisée et connue du chercheur.

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# EDUCATION AND POLITICS: THREE PHASES IN FREIRE'S THINKING.

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## Abstract/Resume

Les références aux idées de Freire tiennent rarement compte des développements importants dans l'évolution de sa penseé. Cette étude examine sept principaux travaux publiés entre 1968 et 1987 et les situe à l'intérieur des trois périodes distinctes de son cheminement que Freire (1987) a lui-même définies. C'est en examinant la nature politique de l'éducation qu'on peut découvrir le rôle par l'éducation dans le processus du changement social.

The process of borrowing from Freire seldom takes account of the important developments in his ideas. This study examined seven principal works written between 1968 and 1987, and locates them within the three distinct phases of his thinking that Freire (1987) himself identifies. It is the examination of the political nature of education that provides an understanding of the role of education in the process of social change.

## Introduction

In A Pedagogy for Liberation (1987), Freire identifies three distinct phases in his thinking about education and politics. In the first phase, he concerned himself only with education; he calls this his most "naive moment". In the second phase he felt that education was not politics but had political dimensions. He presently holds that education and politics are inseparable. The purpose of this study was to locate Freire's principal works within this categorical framework in order to understand better the relationship between politics and education. This involved identifying the principal political and educational themes in the work and the relationship Freire makes between the two.

## Phase I

In the 1960's, against a backdrop of political unrest in Brazil, Freire began to offer an educational response to the problems posed by a society undergoing a period of transition. Freire's (1973) central organisational concept was that of "conscientizacao". This means an awakening of consciousness, a change in a person involving a critical awareness of his or her own identity and situation in nature and society (pp. 18-20). In Freire's view, an educational practice which failed to offer opportunities for the analysis and debate of problems, or for genuine participation in a program that reflects the learner's existential reality, posed a threat to the development of the individual's critical consciousness (p. 33). The concepts of literacy and conscientisation, or 'learning a linguistic code' and 'decoding the experience of reality', formed the two inseparable poles in Freire's pedagogy.

What was noted as being absent in the early period of Freire's work was a specific political organisation of the Brazilian people who had been awakened to the defense of their interests. Freire's colleague Francisco Weffort suggested "although there was on the educational level, a real unity between theory and practice, the same was not true on the political level" (de. Oliveria, p. 24). Reflecting upon his previous naive and liberal view of conscientisation, Freire comments:

> Obviously my mistake was not that I recognised the fundamental importance of a knowledge of reality in the process of its change, but rather, that I did not take those two different moments in their dialecticism. It was as if I was saying that to discover reality already meant to transform it (Cited in Mackie, 1981, p. 114).

Freire offers clarification of his concept of conscientisation in his preface to the French edition of Educucio como practica da liberdae, written in 1972. He warns his readers against the "psychological and idealistic connotations" which in retrospect, he is able to see in the Brazilian experience. "There can be no conscientisation (which necessarily transcends a simple process of awareness), separate from radical and transformative action on social reality" (cited in de. Oliveria 1974, p. 24). Thus, conscientisation, in itself, cannot be seen as a magical solution capable of liberation. It is this point that highlights the essence of a theory that is grounded in social and political thought and offers a viable alternative to the mainstream view of adult education. That is, Freire shines the light on the purposes and processes of collective and active learning for social change.

### Phase II

In Pedagogy of the Oppressed, Freire makes the link between education and politics. The dominant theme is "liberation is a praxis: the action and reflection of people upon their world in order to transform it" (p. 66). The political element of education is that it can either be for the liberation of individuals or for their domestication; that is, it can never be neutral. This introduces the political thread of his pedagogical quilt which continues to be woven in subsequent writings (1976).

At Harvard University's invitation, in 1969, Freire made his initial contact with the reality of "highly industralised societies". The significance of this experience was that he became aware that the Third World was not a *geographic concept*, but rather a *political one*. He writes "the so-called First World has within it and against it its own Third World" (Cited in Mackie, 1981, p. 119). The impact of the degree of domestication imposed by social control institutions on large sections of the American public, defied Freire's illusions about democracy and gave way to a more rigorous analysis of the contradictions, existing in each society, between oppressor and oppressed.

Until the early 1980's, Freire's work, especially in connection with the Institute of Cultural Action, continues to situate him in a double perspective: the understanding of mechanisms by which an education for domination conditions one's consciousness, and the discovery of conditions for overcoming such a process through the development of a critical consciousness (de Oliveria, 1974, p. 20). In further developing his concept of conscientisation Freire holds the view that education cannot be considered independent of the power structure which constitutes it nor detached from the concrete reality in which it takes place. Such a view serves as a reminder for adult educators and demands us to ask Who are we choosing to serve?

In thinking of education as a revolutionary process, as "cultural action for freedom", Freire's work in Guinea-Bissau offers some light on the role of education for social transformation. The pedagogical role of the revolutionary party is not that of imposing an outside consciousness on the people, rather it is "the role of putting things into *movement* so that *the people*, in exercising a revolutionary process through their *action on reality*, can acquire a *consciousness* of their class" [my emphasis] (1978, p. 20). In other words, the prime task of those involved in the process of social transformation is the simultanous unveiling of the world of oppression and the practical struggle to transform it. It is only in this light that one can understand the meaning of Freire's praxis: revelation of the reality of oppression is not possible without action, and revolutionary action is not possible without critical awareness and political commitment based on this awareness. Thus, for Freire this is where the undeniable political characteristic of all education resides: for either one is learning about the world as an active human being who has a creative part in shaping that world, or one is passive, inert and capable only of perceiving the world in the imposed ideology and culture (Walker, 1981, p. 130).

**Phase III**

In the last few years, Freire no longer speaks about a political dimension of education, but rather of the equation of the two. For Freire education *is* politics. The development of the notion of praxis in Freire's cultural politics combines both a language of critique and a language of possibility. A language of possibility allows for forms of analysis that move beyond theories of critique to the more difficult task of laying the theoretical basis for transformative modes of practice (McLaren, 1986, p. 394).

Drawing upon his experiences in Latin America, Africa and America, Freire's Politics of Education (1985) introduces the importance of *context* in his pedagogy. For Freire, speech and language always exist within a social context, where contradictions and tensions between different groups emerge. Freire now insists on an even deeper connection between the culture of everyday life and radical politics. Culture, in Friere's view, exists as a terrain where discourses are created and become implicated in the struggle over meaning. In this sense, culture is never depolitized, it always remains tied to the social and class relationships that inform it (McLaren, 1986, p. 396). This illustrates that education does not take place in a vacuum; it can never be decontextualized but must always be seen as embedded within the wider social structure.

The recognition of education as an underlying political process, provides a valuable insight into the development of the transformative dimension of Freire's work. The essence of this project is that education is a process that allows individuals to work out their own view of the world in a critical and conscious manner, and provides a basis for active participation in the light of this reality. Therefore, rather than being mere spectators, people become actors in the formation of reality, creators of their world. Thus, the dialectical relationship between reflection and action serves as a reminder that social transformation is a historical possibility and provides an alternative argument to the view that Freire's utopia is an idealized notion realised only in the imagination. It is this 'language of possibility' that mainstream adult education has failed to acknowledge.

Freire writes "The society which structures education to meet the interests of those who hold power then finds in education a fundamental factor for the preservation of this power" (cited in de. Oliveria, 1974, p. 28). It is in beginning with this relationship that one can understand both the potential and the limitations of education in the process of social transformation. In his talking book with Ira Shor, A Pedagogy for Liberation (1987), Freire addresses this relationhip. As Law (1988) has pointed out. "while those with the most power are indeed powerful, that power is not absolute, both the power itself and its ideological foundations are being challenged and are challengeable" (p. 116). In the recognition that "Education per se is not the lever of revolutionary transformation" (Shor & Freire, 1987, p. 33), Freire has progressed from his earlier writings; he has taken a position which has developed from a further analysis of the the dialectical relationship between the subsystem of education and the global system of society. What is done in the classroom is, for Freire, not an isolated moment separate form the 'real' world; rather, this connectedness provides both the power and limits on any critical course. Whatever tranformation educator's provoke inside the classroom has a conditioning effect outside, and the outside also has a conditioning effect on the educators' role (p. 26). It is in understanding this dialectical relationship that educators can take advantage of the opportunities offered within their practice for the insertion of a radical critical pedagogy. Freire's work does not provide a step by step guide as to how 'liberating education' can be accomplished. It does serve, however, as a theoretical torch that can shine light on the limits and possibilities within different educational situations.

Expanding on his original thinking, Freire's latest work Literacy: Reading the Word and the World (1987), again addresses the question of whether education serves social reproduction or serves as a set of cultural practices that promotes democratic and emancipatory change. His *pedagogy of knowing* becomes the dominant concern in order to fully understand the *language of possibility*. The central concept of this pedagogy is "knowing that", which emphasises the empowerment of the learner. Conversly, conventional educational practice stresses "knowing how". Freire offers a reason why this might be so. For him "knowing that" is crucial for the development of a critical consciousness and is the underlying concept for understanding "the act of reading the world". This means, the learning of reading and writing of texts implies a critical understanding of the social context to which the texts refer: "reading of reality through anlysis of social practice" (p. 25). This can only be constructed around a dialogical theory of voice and empowerment.

Again, what is found at the heart of Freire's pedagogy is that naming the world becomes a model for changing the world. It is only in the unity of these two processes that one gets a hold on the role education plays in the struggle for social and self emancipation. Education according to Freire, is inherently a political endeavour in which individuals' assert their right and responsibility not only to read and understand, and transform their experiences, but also to reconstitute their relationship with the wider society, In this sense, education is fundamental to aggressively constructing one's voice as part of a broader project of possibility and empowerment.

## Conclusions

In The Politics of Education, Paulo Freire states that in trying "to apprehend subjectivity and objectivity in their dialectical relationship" (i.e of understanding both the promise and the limitations of what he calls "conscientisation"), he has transformed from "a tramp of the obvious", to "the tramp of demystifying conscientisation" (Berthoff, 1987, p. xi). It becomes clear that through his continual reflection, Freire has no intention of allowing his pedagogy to settle into certainity. For this reason, Freire's educational quilt is continually being woven. Freire's progress illustrates that he has not constructed his theory in a systematic fashion. Rather it should be viewed as a fabric of interlacing strands, synthesised into shape through an intense process of action and reflection. That is, the many threads of Freire's thought are drawn from practice and are pulled into theoretical explanations and perspectives, to be renewed once again in practice.

Conceiving the task of literacy to be humanisation, Freire is led inevitably to an examinantion of the ways social and political structures impede this goal. As a consequence, the development of his theory of literacy and education has as one of its principal concerns, the promotion of social transformation. Freire's pedagogy focuses on human liberation from oppression, not only in Brazil, but everywhere oppression exists. While his theory originated within a specific situational context, its applications are potentially much wider. To conclude with his words:

> "I began, as a man of the third world, to elaborate not a mechanical method of adult literacy learning, but an educational theory generated in the womb of the culture of silence itself - a theory which could become in practice not the voice of the culture, but one of the instruments of that still faltering voice (Cited in Mackie, 1981, p. 93).

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# JOB SEARCH EXPERIENCES OF GRADUATES FOLLOWING THE BASIC JOB READINESS TRAINING PROGRAM

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*Une méthodologie qualitative a été utilisée dans cette étude. Six diplômés d'un programme de préparation à l'emploi (Basic Job Readiness Training-BJRT) ont été encouragés à explorer les expériences de leur recherche d'un emploi permanent. Les conversations ont été stimulées à l'aide de questions pénétrantes. L'auteur a analysé leurs observations, en a discuté les résultats en les comparant aux recherches antérieures, et en a considéré les implications pour le programme de BJRT.*

**Introduction:** The job search process is becoming increasingly important as we continue to experience employment disruption in our society. The changes in the labour market are partly due to our transformation from an industrial society to an information society (Toffler, 1982). These changes will create new jobs in the information job sector but jobs in the industrial sector will be lost, particularly middle level jobs. This shift in the labour market could create a figure eight economy with society becoming more bipolar. People would be employed in either high level professional and managerial jobs or in low level service jobs (Rumberger, 1984). The end result will be higher levels of unemployment (Senior, 1984). For those who have higher education this transformation will be bothersome, but they will likely be able to find adequate employment. But for those who have limited education, who have dropped out of school, the prospects are less optimistic (Christensen, 1982; Deahl, 1985). They will now have to compete for a smaller number of jobs against those with higher levels of skills. This present study is concerned about these adults with low levels of education. It is concerned about their ability to find and remain in jobs in the future, their job search experiences.

For the purpose of this study job search experiences are those significant activities and relationships which the participants in the study encountered, before they obtained a long-term job. The activities are not necessarily significant in that they will lead one to a job; they are significant in that the respondents of this study felt these activities were important enough to mention during the interview. People experience these activities in a social context that can include relationships with family members, friends, counsellors and students. These relations can affect the person's chances of searching for and finding suitable employment.

To focus this study within the general area of job searching, the author considers the job search experiences of graduates from a particular basic training program, the Basic Job Readiness Training program (BJRT). BJRT is a Canadian federally sponsored program that provides participants with basic job readiness skills so that they can successfully enter the labour market.

The purpose of this study is to better understand BJRT graduates' perceptions of the task of searching for long-term jobs once they leave the program. This purpose can be translated into the following two objectives:

-to describe the perceptions of the job search experience held by the BJRT graduates and

-to consider the implications for basic training programs of the graduates' perceptions of the post-program experience.

The job search experiences included in this study are considered under the themes of Family and Friends, BJRT, CEIC (Canadian Employment and Immigration Commission), Unemployment, Work and Job Search Strategy. The author had an image of the important themes before he began the study. He was not attempting to develop new themes through this work, but hoping to describe the perceptions of these themes held by the BJRT graduates. The five themes of CEIC, BJRT, Unemployment, Job Search Strategy and Work represent the major activities or states that the graduates encountered. Family and Friends is the sixth theme area which in essence transcends the other five. This theme is not an activity or state but represents relationships that exist between the graduates and significant people in their lives.

**Methodology:** A qualitative methodology was adopted. Six graduates from a Basic Job Readiness Training program (BJRT) were encouraged to explore their experiences searching for long-term jobs. For this purpose the author created an interview schedule that was based on findings from the literature, and discussions with students and graduates of BJRT.

The interviewees for this study were drawn from those graduates of a BJRT program who had begun the program after January 1, 1984 and had completed it before February 28, 1985. A graduate was defined as an adult who completed at least nine weeks of the program and had received the BJRT diploma.

From the group mentioned above, a number of graduates were randomly selected and contacted. The author began interviewing these people in August, 1985 and by October, 1985 he had completed six sessions. After the sixth session the author felt he had interviewed a sufficient number of people who represented for him a fair cross-section of the student population. Represented in this group of six was a recent immigrant, a young adult who had left home at an early age, people who migrated from different parts of Canada, a person who had been labelled as "disabled", someone who had difficulty relating with his parents and a person who had trouble with the law.

The author tape recorded the interviews and transcribed them verbatim. He wrote histories for each respondent, describing their life stories and exploring important patterns and relationships. Working with the material from all of the interviews, he sorted data segments into categories and analyzed the results. The method of data management was adapted from the work on systemic networks by Bliss, Monk and Ogborn (1983). This process exposed meaningful patterns and relationships regarding the job search. For a complete description of the study the reader is referred to Fallis (1988).

**Results:** The findings are summarized below under the six theme areas of the study.
Family and Friends: Those who had positive parental relations could rely on some support from their parents in times of difficulties or indecision. Some of these graduates received support from counsellors and friends as well. This support varied depending on the closeness of the relationship between the graduate and his or her parents.

The effect of peer groups seemed to be dependent on the working status of the members. Peer groups of people who were working attempted to support the graduate and offered suggestions of places to apply, whereas peer groups of people who were not working encouraged the graduate to remain unemployed.

CEIC: The CEIC counsellors provided a range of functions. Their effectiveness seemed to be dependent on the relationship between the graduate and the counsellor. Those counsellors who were able to develop trusting relationships with the graduates were perceived to be more effective than those counsellors where such relationships were not established.

BJRT: All the graduates except one mentioned the importance of Life Skills in their BJRT experience. Personal development and interaction with other students emerged from the data as important categories of Life Skills activities. The Vocational Exploration component was also mentioned by all the graduates as being important. A list of activities relating to job choice and job obtainment emerged from the graduates' descriptions.

All the graduates made some disparaging comments about the other students. Most thought that the entry procedure used by BJRT should be more stringent, allowing entry only to those students who were strongly motivated to learn.

Unemployment: It seemed possible to divide the graduates into two categories while they were unemployed: those who were active and non-substance-abusing, and those who were engaged in substance-abusing activities. Those graduates who were substance-abusing were more likely to have no job search strategy than those who were active and non-substance-abusing.

The parents' perceptions of the graduates appeared to be an important determinant of the graduates' self-confidence especially during their periods of unemployment. Two graduates were perceived negatively by their parents. A third graduate felt the dissonance between her unemployed lifestyle and her parents' expectations. All of these conditions led to a lowering of the graduates' self-confidence.

Some family members changed their perception of the graduate when the latter was unemployed. One graduate appeared to have conditional support from her family. As long as she maintained a certain lifestyle that was coherent with the values of her family, she was esteemed. But once she became unemployed, she was living contrary to the family values. This change in perception by the family could have affected the way in which she perceived herself.

The unemployed period was a challenging time for most of the graduates, where they became more aware of themselves and how they dealt with difficult situations.

Job Search Strategies: It seemed to be the case that family, friends and counsellors who had positive and close relations with the graduates suggested places to visit and people to meet. In contrast, those graduates who had negative or distant relations with family, friends or counsellors were more likely to receive general approaches to job searching or no suggestions whatsoever.

The responses to the question relating to the meaning of job search strategies could be divided into two categories: general attitudes towards job search strategies and components of job search strategies. General attitudes included such words as being lucky, having personality, exciting, selling yourself and being flexible. The components were divided into those that related to a general plan and those that were specific activities. The responses in the general plan category included having a plan, making a schedule and planning your strategy and then keeping to it. The specific activities mentioned by the graduates included going for an interview, maintaining eye contact, making appointments, having a good resume and going in person.

It is interesting that two graduates mentioned "going or being out there" as a specific activity. These words conveyed the idea of actively looking for a job, of maintaining a constant contact with the potential market. They seemed to suggest to this observer that all that was required for these graduates was the act of searching itself not necessarily a planned approach.

When asked,"What would you want in life for you to be successful?" the graduates listed a range of conditions which included the following: being educated, having a career, being appreciated, having the opportunity to do what one wants to do, having a good relationship and going to university for a degree. These conditions emphasized those very things in life which the graduates had been deprived of.

Work: With regard to leaving a job, there seems to be some associations that can be drawn from the interviews. One factor that increased the potential of leaving a job was one's inability to perform the tasks of the job. Other factors come into play if the graduates can perform the tasks of the job and maintain good attendance. They then must decide if this is a job that they are willing to sustain for an extended period of time. The decision may depend on a number of factors, including the coherence of one's self-image with regard to the job and the relations between oneself and the employer.

Summary: One dominant theme that emerges from the analysis is the importance of relationships to the job search experience. Relations with family, friends and counsellors are major factors affecting one's success in the job search.

Early relations with one's parents appear to determine one's self-confidence in later life. If these relations were positive then one was likely to have higher self-confidence. The family also had an affect on the unemployed graduate. A family that did not support the graduate during unemployment made the situation more difficult whereas the family that unconditionally accepted and supported the graduate, made the job search process easier to contemplate and undertake. The unconditional acceptance is similar to Roger's (1957) term "unconditional positive regard" which he defines as the ability to unconditionally accept all aspects of a person's experience as being valid for that person. It involves accepting the person's negative, "bad", painful, fearful, defensive, abnormal feelings as well as the positive, "good", mature, confident, social feelings.

Relations with friends also proved to be valuable to the graduates during the job search experience, as strong supportive peer groups provided encouragement and made suggestions of places to apply. The informal or unofficial network of family and friends does aid the job search as was found by Stafford and Jackson (1980), Dzubow (1985) and Gordon (1985). As might be expected, the more distant one's relations with one's parents and the fewer friends one has, the less the likelihood of gaining access to jobs through this informal network.

**Conclusions:** From the results of the interviews and the analysis of the transcripts, the author made summary suggestions that relate to possible emphasis shifts with programs in basic training.

The author designed the study so that he would hear the perceptions of the graduates and understand the reality of their situation. Too often the "experts" create programs that are not based on the actual needs of target groups. M. Johnson (1982) concurred when she wrote:

> Now the J.S.T. (Job Search Training) field is permeated with mythology, and over-dominated by a singular image of the white collar professional job-finding process. Very little research has been conducted about these processes in blue collar and service occupations, areas where participants find work (p.ii).

The author encouraged the graduates to focus on and express their perceptions. It is the author's opinion that program developers and facilitators should listen carefully to the needs of their target populations and base their programs as much as possible on these *perceived* needs instead of the *assumed* needs of the user groups.

It became apparent from the graduates that effective facilitators and counsellors were highly valued. Those people who listened with empathy and attempted to understand the graduates from the graduates' own perspective were perceived to be the most helpful. The graduates reported that within CEIC, some counsellors assessed them and made decisions for them without understanding their real needs. The importance of understanding the graduates' world especially of those who had negative self-images would be valuable for counsellors. Most of the graduates had such a self-image as they had been buffeted by their past relationships. Now, as adults, they required counsellors who were able to listen to them, hear their stories, empathize with their position and support them. The skills of an effective care-giver are relevant for facilitators and counsellors alike, as they perform their tasks.

The literature states (Harvey, 1975; Stafford and Jackson, 1980 and Mangum, 1982) and this study reaffirms that the graduates used family members and friends to help them find jobs. It is this author's perceptions that basic training programs could emphasize the importance of family and friends on one's job search. Perhaps in some cases the support from family members is lacking and perhaps the students do not "get along" with their parents, yet this is the reality the students live with. They should have the opportunity to reflect on their family and friends as a means of identifying jobs that suit their own realities and aspirations.

During Vocational Exploration sessions, students could reflect on the influence of the family members and friends on their job searching process. Vocational Exploration could include an awareness of jobs the extended family and friends hold. Also, discussions could be held that identify those people who might help the students obtain a job. A question to ponder might be, "How could they best utilize their existing support systems to find work?" Mangum (1982) stated in his review of job search literature, "Job search training programs should stress the importance of informal search methods and the advantages of developing and maintaining a network of informal contacts" (p. 58). This network of informal contacts could include one's parents, siblings, uncles, aunts, friends etc.

Another conclusion from this research was the value of reflecting on unemployment. Basic training programs could include discussions that prepare the graduates for unemployment, when it inevitably occurs in the future. Even though the memories of this time can be painful, unemployment has likely been a significant period in the students' lives. From the pages of data on the transcripts, the graduates did not seem distressed by sharing their unemployed experiences, but rather explained earnestly the events of that time and the learnings that resulted.

By spending group sessions on such a topic, those who have experienced unemployment in its raw discomfort could impart some of their learnings to students who have not yet been unemployed. In addition, it may help those who have been unemployed to come to terms with unemployment, if they have not yet done so.

The author would suggest that the main activities in the students' lives possess valuable learnings, no matter what these activities have been. From the context of the job search, facilitators could encourage students to reflect on these times and to consider the important learnings they gained.

Underlying these suggestions is an emphasis on viewing the students as whole people. Major experiences in their lives could be considered when discussing the job search. This suggests an approach that does not compartmentalize the students or isolate a single factor to be examined independently from the whole. All aspects of the person are brought to bear on the problem of job search in a holistic, complementary fashion. Basic training programs could assist participants to view themselves in such a holistic manner, which in turn could lead them towards fuller lives.

This was an exploratory research project by design, in which the author developed an understanding of the phenomenon of job search experience. Gaskell and Lazerson (1980-81) speak to the value of qualitative research in providing a "sense" or "feel" for the transition from school to work.

> This methodology is necessarily impressionistic and interpretive, but has the advantage of revealing ways of thinking that cannot be measured by more objective and standardize procedures.. It is more difficult to control, to generalize from, to attach numbers to, but it comes closer than any other method to conveying a sense of what the transition from school to work feels like to the people involved (p.81).

It is the author's belief that the interpretations expressed here are an accurate reflection of the thoughts and feelings of these graduates who left BJRT. The subjective impressions of their lives after the program with regard to the job search experience has been valuable to record and analyze. From the analysis, implications were developed for BJRT and related programs.

In summary, adults with low levels of education will continue to have difficulties finding, securing and remaining in long term employment. By understanding the experiences they encounter, educators in basic training programs can maximize the effectiveness of their programs so that the graduates are given the best possible chance of succeeding in the labour market.

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# TOWARD CONCEPTUALIZING THE FIELD OF ADULT EDUCATION AS A DISCIPLINE

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**ABSTRACT**: This paper reports a two phase project which focused on the ascertainment of a body of knowledge specific to the field of adult education and its relevance for the continuous learning of adult educators. First, foundational texts up to and including 1981 were selected for analysis, and second, foundational texts from 1982 to the present were selected for the same purpose. A presentation and discussion of the findings as well as suggestions for redesigning professional education are offered.

**RESUME**: Comprenant deux phases, ce projet essayait de déterminer l'ensemble de connaissances qui distingue l'éducation permanente comme discipline et sa pertinence de la formation continue des éducateurs d'adultes. D'abord, on a choise et analysé les ecrits fondamentals jusqu'à et y compris 1981, et ensuite, on les a examinés de 1982 à present. On présente et discute les résultats; aussi, on suggère des modifications de la formation continue des éducateurs d'adultes.

For the past decade or more, a great deal has been written about making professional education more relevant to professional practice. Fifteen years ago Argyris and Schon (1974) addressed the issue of redesigning professional education according to the necessities of competent practice. They concluded that competence in professional practice is related to two abilities -- the ability to develop theories of what to do in new situations, and the ability to behave humanely and effectively in the give-and-take of practitioner-client relations. Their model-II learning environment was a popular topic of discussion in the late 70s, and one which interested adult educators as well.

More recently, Long (1983) strongly suggested that "a dynamic society demands a dynamic conceptualization of adult education as a field of study and practice" (p.263) He was of the opinion that the issues and questions facing adult educators for more than fifty years have become more complex and that some of these now have become perennial ones requiring continuous review and constant revision by professionals in the field. This is no small task, however, given the diversity of the field and the fact that many actually view it as two fields: a field of study and a field of practice.

As with many other professional fields, practice in the field of adult education preceded study, a situation that has given rise to such problems as a theory-practice dichotomy. While the resolution of this conflict is far from being completely solved, Long (1983) is of the opinion that "both groups appear to agree on the importance of the development of a body of knowledge that is specific to the issues and challenges of educating the adult" (p.263). It is the ascertainment of this body of knowledge specific to the field of adult education and of its relevance for the continuing education of adult educators that this study is directed.

## Context of the Study

The Master of Adult Education program at St. Francis Xavier University, Antigonish, is a self-directed learning experience wherein students are expected to design, implement, and evaluate their own content curriculum. Although the program does not have courses in the traditional sense of university study, its three phases: program design, program implementation, and program evaluation together with thesis can be translated into courses and credits. As the program is a professional development one, one of the admission requirements is that applicants have at least two years' experience in individual, community or group learning projects. In brief, the program is designed for the continuing education of adult educators. While the emphasis has been on the technical - "techniques the practitioner will use in the substantive task of his [her] practice" (Argyris & Schon, 1974, p.164) more emphasis has been placed recently on theory and the transfer of theory into practice as well as the personal characteristics of the educator. With this shift which has been a gradual one, the faculty have found themselves faced with the task of identifying educational concepts, notions, theories of adult education, particularly foundational ones as possible curriculum organizers. After having depended in the beginning on a rather informal system of identifying topics germane to the field, the faculty thought it was time to take the matter more seriously. Thus they embarked collectively on a formal investigation which took shape as a collaborative, departmental project. Three distinct yet complementary approaches were taken and this paper deals with the part which investigated the topic through a review of selected literature.

## Methodology

The project involved two phases using a similar strategy. First, foundational texts up to and including 1981 were identified. Then the content of each text was analyzed using seven headings taken from the table of contents of Adult Education: Foundations of Practice by Darkenwald and Merriam (1982): adult education; philosophy and adult education; adults as learners; participation, agencies and programs; international adult education; and problems and issues. This text was chosen as the basis of the analysis because it seemed to be an important review of the foundations of adult education up to 1982. The choice of texts was made by selecting all the books identified as foundational -- important for concepts of adult education rather than being manuals of practice -- from the department's existing bibliographic listing. This selection yielded 47 books. This list was cross-checked with five other lists of foundational or "most influential authors". Four of these compilations were personal ones while the other was the report of a study of texts most used in core adult education courses in American and Canadian institutions conducted by the Department of Adult Education, University of Georgia (Church, Arnold, & Courtnay, 1983). The final check was for availability of texts at two local libraries. In the end 17 books were identified for analysis.

Having arrived at this final list of 17 texts the table of contents of each book was categorized using the seven headings taken from the Darkenwald and Merriam (1982) book. Next, these headings were modified and reduced to six categories based on what seemed to be more specific categories after the first analysis was completed. Each of the selected texts then was gone through assigning chapters or parts of chapters to the appropriate category. When completed this list showed which topics had most often been mentioned in the selected texts. Important terms were also identified.

The first step in Phase II was to identify foundational books from 1982-1986. Nine texts by eight different authors or editors were selected for analysis. This was done using the same strategy as in Phase I. The categories which emerged in Phase I were used for the first step in the analysis process in Phase II. These categories were modified and changed according to the information revealed in the texts e.g., one category was divided into two categories. Other important topics which appeared in the examined texts also were identified.

## Findings

In Phase I the following texts were examined: Bergevin (1967), Boyd and Apps (1980), Cross (1976, 1981), Darkenwald and Merriam (1982), Elias and Merriam (1980), Freire (1970), Havighurst (1972), Houle (1972, 1980), Kidd (1973), Knox (1977), Knowles (1970, 1973, 1975), Lindeman (1961), and Tough (1971). This list represents fifteen different authors or editors, some with multiple listings and others who co-authored texts. The six subject headings which emerged as being important are listed in order of their importance: (a) program planning/design, (b) participation of adults in learning, (c) study of roles and tasks of adults, (d) issues arising from changes, directions, dilemmas, (e) philosophical basis of adult education, (f) theories of learning. The main emphasis, at least in the first four categories, appears to be on the adult as learner and how the adult educator can respond better to this large and growing clientele who are seeking their services. Program planning or "what ought to be done" seems to be dominant in this list. This fact aside, other topics relating to understanding the "why" and "what", the philosophical basis of practice as well as the learning process itself, appeared to be gaining in importance. This shift in direction is evident in some of the later writers. Earlier writers, however, like Bergevin (1967) and Lindeman (1961) had reminded readers of the importance of philosophical foundations more than twenty years ago while authors like Kidd (1973) and Knowles (1973) had pointed to the importance of learning theory. Several notable terms also emerged from this same literature; these are (a) lifelong learning, (b) professionalism, (c) andragogy, and (d) learning projects. They were not dealt with separately.

In phase II the following texts were examined: Brookfield (1984, 1985), Kolb (1984), Knox (1986), Long (1983), Merriam (1982), Rogers (1983), Smith (1983), and Wlodkowski (1985). Using the subject headings from phase I, an attempt was made to order these texts accordingly. It was soon discovered that the program planning/design category required division into two parts: institutions and personal, since this seemed to be a distinction arising from the texts. Also, no texts or parts of texts could be found that fit the category, study of roles and tasks of adults. It seemed that there were some important topics arising during these years that did not fit easily into this category as used. Six categories, emerged as being important; these again are presented in their order of importance: (a) participation of adults in learning, (b) program planning/design; personal, (c) theories of learning, (d) issues arising from changes and direction, (e) program planning/design: institutions, and (f) philosophical basis of adult education. While there is some clear overlap with the Phase I list, the Phase II categories clearly point to the shift in direction that began emerging in the Phase I. Other important topics coming up in the texts were the role of the teacher, research and practice, community action, experiential learning and learning styles. These topics further helped define the nature of the shift in the field of adult education that was apparently taking place.

What appears to be going on in the field reflects Long's (1983) belief that academics and practitioners are beginning to see "eye to eye", at least on some matters. The nature of the relationship between theory and practice, rather than being viewed as a dichotomous one, is seen now as interdependent, one informing the other. We seem to be approaching a paradoxical yet very important developmental period in our history. In writing about this very situation, Usher (1987) tells us, "it is impossible to have theory which does not arise from practice and practice which is not located in theory." (p.30). This study confirms this belief. Interestingly, as theoretical concepts -- learning theory, experiential learning, learning styles -- gained prominence these last few years, practice issues, e.g., program planning have not waned in importance. We seem to be approaching a point of co-equality. Even the division of program planning into two categories is an interesting advance. In brief, there is clear evidence that practitioners and theorists are beginning to listen to each other. If this be so, and there is sufficient evidence that it is, then adult edcucation is clearly moving ahead as a profession. Professional education, therefore, should reflect this trend.

The implications for practice are many. Foremost among these is the importance of a sound theory-practice base in any curriculum which is being developed or redesigned. This direction is what Argyris and Schon (1974) had argued for fifteen years ago. The categories flowing from Phase II provide an excellent framework for redesigning professional education according to the necessities of competent practice.

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# LA PROBLÉMATIQUE DE LA THÉORIE DE LA COMMUNICATION EN ÉDUCATION A DISTANCE

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**Résumé**: Les précurseurs, en revendiquant les concepts d'autonomie et d'indépendance, ont en quelque sorte amorcé la problématique d'une théorie de la communication en éducation à distance. Nous examinons comment Holmberg constitue une plaque tournante dans l'évolution de la dimension théorique de ce champ d'étude puis comment Garrison élargit le cadre conceptuel afin d'accommoder les nouvelles technologies. En dernière analyse, nous indiquons quelques pistes de recherche concernant le développement théorique du domaine.

**Abstract**: The early literature by stressing the autonomy and independence of the distant student has raised the fundamental question about a theory of communication in distance education. First, we explain why we view Holmberg as a turning point in the development of a theoretical framework. We then proceed to demonstrate the importance of Garrison's work towards the edification of a theory of communication for distance education. In final analysis, we identify some areas of research towards the theoretical development of the field.

## INTRODUCTION

Nombreux sont ceux qui encore aujourd'hui associent l'éducation à distance à l'enseignement par correspondance et perçoivent ce mode d'apprentissage comme l'ultime ressource quand les obstacles géographiques et temporels n'ont pas pu être autrement surmontés. Dans sa forme la plus dépouillée, la communication se résume à l'envoi de cours préimprimés à l'étudiant qui renvoie les travaux requis à des fins de correction. L'apprentissage revêt alors des caractères d'autonomie et d'indépendance qui font que pendant longtemps les précurseurs (Delling, 1975; Wedemeyer, 1977; Moore, 1977) ont perçu la communication à distance comme unidirectionnelle. Il faut comprendre que la rétroaction étant réduite à des commentaires écrits parfois verbaux (par téléphone) d'un tuteur/correcteur invisible, ce dernier demeure absent si bien que l'étudiant est à la fois l'émetteur et le récepteur de son propre message écrit, donc une communication qui s'effectue toujours dans le même sens. Cette approche a cependant paralysé le développement d'une théorie de la communication en éducation à distance jusqu'à ce que la pratique, avec des formes de soutien à l'apprentissage, vienne justifier des approches plus contemporaines s'appuyant sur l'interaction et la bi-directionnalité.

## I L'ÉMERGENCE D'UNE THÉORIE DE L'ÉDUCATION A DISTANCE

Dans la poursuite de la communication éducative à distance, Holmberg (1985) contribue à l'approfondissement du domaine en proposant la théorie suivant laquelle l'éducation à distance revêt les caractéristiques d'une conversation didactique guidée. En effet, si l'autonomie de l'étudiant n'est plus à revendiquer, il n'en demeure pas moins que les échanges qu'il aura, d'une part avec les documents écrits qu'il reçoit par correspondance et d'autre part avec son conseiller et l'institution avec lesquels il communique au besoin, détermineront le succès de son apprentissage. Le fondement de la théorie de Holmberg repose sur l'existence d'une conversation permanente entre les auteurs et les étudiants; cette conversation est à la fois simulée par l'interaction de ces derniers avec les cours préimprimés et authentique grâce aux commentaires écrits et/ou verbaux (par téléphone) des professeurs/tuteurs. Dans un ouvrage récent de Holmberg (1986), un chapitre attire l'attention sur la prudence de son libellé: Steps on the Path towards a Theory of Distance Education. A partir de sa théorie de la conversation didactique guidée, Holmberg propose une théorie de l'enseignement pour l'éducation à distance qu'il formule en ces termes:

> Distance teaching will support student motivation, promote learning pleasure and effectiveness if offered in a way felt to make the study relevant to the individual learner and his/her needs, creating feelings of rapport between the learner and the distance-education institution (its tutors, counsellors, etc.), facilitating access to course content, engaging the learner in activities, discussions and decisions and generally catering for helpful real and simulated communication to and from the learner. (p. 123)

Holmberg reconnaît que cette théorie n'est pas sans lacunes cependant elle tente d'expliquer la véritable nature de l'apprentissage à distance. En introduisant une théorie de l'interaction et de la communication fondée sur un échange qui s'effectue dans les deux sens (bi-directionnelle) Holmberg constitue une plaque tournante dans l'évolution de la dimension théorique de l'éducation à distance.

## II L'AMORCE D'UNE THÉORIE DE LA COMMUNICATION EN ÉDUCATION A DISTANCE

Dans Understanding distance education: A framework for the future (sous presse), Garrison nous introduit à ce qu'il appelle 'The modern era', l'ère moderne de l'éducation à distance. Cette dénotation laisse supposer un nouvel ordre de phénomènes, une évolution. Celle-ci est étroitement liée au développement ces quinze dernières années de la téléconférence grâce au progrès de la technologie associée à l'usage du téléphone. Boisvert (1987) nous explique qu'en son sens commun, le terme téléconférence désigne un réseau de communication téléphonique qui permet à des personnes géographiquement distantes de se retrouver en un même moment sans toutefois être dans un même lieu. (p. 9) C'est plus précisément par la télélecture que le professeur dispense son enseignement par téléphone à des groupes d'apprenants situés dans des lieux différents. La voix du professeur est amplifiée dans chaque lieu et les apprenants peuvent communiquer avec le professeur, par l'intermédiaire de microphones reliés à la ligne téléphonique. (p. 11) Garrison explique que ce qui distingue la téléconférence du cours par correspondance est l'existence du groupe d'étudiants qui est recréé en téléconférence. Il constate que l'importance de la téléconférence a échappé à de nombreux théoriciens or nous sommes en train d'assister à un changement de paradigme pour ce qui est de faciliter et soutenir l'apprentissage à distance:

> The main reason ... is that teleconferencing is a group method of learning at a distance. Of all the means to support distance education, teleconferencing most closely simulates the transaction between teacher and students in a contiguous or conventional form of education. The exchange is conversational in nature, it may be spontaneous, and it is immediate.

La communication bi-directionnelle en téléconférence est régulière et immédiate; il est desormais possible de négocier des objectifs et le sens du contenu transmis avec le professeur ainsi que de discuter avec les autres participants comme dans une salle de classe conventionnelle. La téléconférence s'adresse à des groupes cibles de petite taille et largement dispersés. Garrison souligne qu'en téléconférence le matériel imprimé n'a pas besoin d'être très structuré et d'avoir une présentation sophistiquée contrairement au matériel du cours par correspondance; il est possible d'intégrer du matériel même relativement disjoint pendant la transmission sur les ondes ce qui rend encore plus vivante la communication éducative. Un dernier avantage et ce n'est pas le moindre réside dans l'existence d'une dynamique de groupe: "A unique advantage of audio teleconferencing when more than one student is at a particular location is the opportunity to clarify or discuss briefly an issue among themselves (without disturbing other participants) while still attending to the general conference". Garrison, en nous introduisant aux nouvelles techniques de communication à distance, se distingue inévitablement de ses prédécesseurs. Il s'oppose à Holmberg lorsqu'il dit que les documents imprimés n'offrent pas une conversation bi-directionnelle à l'étudiant à distance:

> Holmberg (1985) has described this independent form of distance learning as 'simulated guided didactic conversation' . . . The fact that there may a form of internal dialogue when students interact with print materials does not meet the requirement that there be some opportunity for negotiation of meaning.

Cette critique amène Garrison à se pencher sur la dynamique qui existe dans la communication éducative à distance en dépassant la simple bi-directionnalité; il nous suggère un modèle qui est basé sur le **concept de contrôle** -- qui représente la relation entre les trois pôles que sont l'indépendance, la compétence et le soutien et que nous retrouvons également dans l'interaction encore plus vaste entre l'enseignant, l'étudiant et le contenu. Le contrôle est établi lorsque la communication est bi-directionnelle et que la triade-indépendance, compétence et soutien - atteint un équilibre dynamique. Le contrôle résulte de l'accès à l'information par l'intermédiaire d'une infrastructure assurant la communication. Le modèle de Garrison incite à la réflexion et pourrait constituer, par son originalité, l'amorce d'une théorie de la communication en éducation à distance. La contribution de Garrison repose également sur deux affirmations qui pourraient être considérées comme **deux postulats** à partir desquels une théorie de la communication en éducation à distance pourrait être édifiée. Le premier est de **considérer l'éducation à distance comme une forme d'enseignement à part entière se distinguant uniquement par la séparation physique du professeur et de l'étudiant**: "Distance education must be viewed not as a separate genus but as an educational activity that is different only by the physical separation of teacher and student". Le deuxième est d'**examiner l'éducation à distance comme un processus de communication**: "Distance educators must see the educational transaction as a communication process"; ceci signifie que l'enseignant est réintégré dans la transaction éducative à distance: "True control of education can only be assured through continuous communication within a mutually respectful, influential and beneficial relationship". Enfin Garrison apporte une clarification fondamentale à établir entre communication et technologie: "Communication is the interface between teaching and learning while technology represents the interface between structure (i.e. organisation) and process".

## III ÉTAT DE LA RECHERCHE

Dans la poursuite de l'efficacité en matière d'enseignement à distance, la recherche s'est particulièrement intéressée à la forme du processus de communication c'est-à-dire aux différents médias et à la technologie éducative qui leur est associée. Selon Garrison, parmi les études qui ont porté sur l'effet des médias sur l'apprentissage celle de Salomon mérite notre attention:

> One of the most promising and revealing approaches to this dilemna regarding the effects of media on the educational process is provided by Salomon. Salomon (1981) outlines a psychological theory that integrates and considers the interactions among media, cognition and learning. He believes that symbol systems, or the ways of structuring and presenting information, are the primary attributes of media and are most important when considering cognition and learning ... In short, Salomon argues that symbol systems represent and address thémselves to different kinds of content and invoked different kinds of mental skills in the process ... Instructional technologists must isolate and study the specific symbol systems to improve our understanding of learning through media.

Il reconnaît toutefois les limites de cet apport: "While Salomon's theoretical framework provides an explanation of the effects of media and indicates directions for future research, we are not much closer at this point in time to helping distance educators select and combine media for specific instructional functions".

Nous croyons comme Garrison que la contribution de Salomon se situe dans la clarification du rôle des médias dans la communication et l'apprentissage; cependant nous déplorons dans l'ouvrage de Salomon (1979) l'absence de référence au cas particulier d'un apprentissage qui s'effectue à distance; nous remarquons que Garrison met en évidence les limites du cadre conceptuel élaboré par Salomon en ce qui concerne les praticiens de l'enseignement à distance mais il n'explicite pas cette lacune par rapport aux pistes de recherche suggérées. A notre avis, Salomon semble privilégier une population composée de jeunes d'âge scolaire tant au niveau de sa recension des écrits que des études qu'il recommande. Ceci rend difficile la généralisation auprès d'une population adulte des opérations mentales complexes qui s'opèrent en présence des médias et qui ont été identifiées le plus souvent à partir d'expériences faites chez les enfants. Il faudrait donc tester les hypothèses de Salomon auprès des adultes qui sont encore aujourd'hui les principaux usagers de la formation à distance. Il s'avère essentiel d'examiner parallèlement les théories de l'apprentissage de l'adulte si on veut bien saisir les opérations mentales qui sont activées en présence d'un médium plutôt qu'un autre.

Si l'on examine par ailleurs un noyau de recherches canadiennes entre 1980 et 1987, on constate que dans leur ensemble les études fournissent une analyse descriptive de la fonction de communication en éducation à distance ou encore adoptent une approche instrumentale en se consacrant à l'impact des médias sur l'apprentissage (Rogers, 1981; Thompson, 1984; Persons, 1985). Quelques recherches ont essayé d'analyser le processus de communication en se penchant sur les caractéristiques interactives et participatives (Nakonechny, 1983; Pornsima, 1984; Boisvert, 1987). Cependant elles ne se sont pas appuyées sur les théories de la communication pour analyser l'apprentissage à distance.

## CONCLUSION

Au cours de ce bref exposé, nous avons tenté de mettre en lumière le fait qu'il existe bien une problématique de la théorie de la communication en éducation à distance. Nous avons voulu montrer que cette problématique a été jusqu'à présent directement reliee à la conception du processus de communication à distance qui subit inévitablement l'influence du progrès de la technologie. Chez Holmberg, la théorie de la communication nous est apparue implicite tandis que chez Garrison elle devient plus explicite dans la mesure où l'enseignant est complètement réintégré.

L'examen de la recherche nous a conduit à identifier une lacune dans la littérature en ce qui concerne les liens qu'il faudrait établir entre les théories de la communication et l'éducation à distance. En se consacrant à la forme du processus de communication à distance, l'approche jusqu'à présent privilégiée nous apparaît trop instrumentale. Nous recommandons aux chercheurs de se pencher sur la nature du processus de communication en éducation à distance afin de consolider la dimension théorique de ce champ d'étude.

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# DELIVERING POSTSECONDARY DISTANCE EDUCATION VIA COMMUNICATIONS TECHNOLOGIES: OBSTACLES AND HINDRANCES*

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## Abstract

This presentation examines issues and concerns that postsecondary educational institutions need to address before a decision is made to adopt communications technologies to deliver distance instruction. Suggestions are offered for overcoming problems and obstacles when integrating a telecommunication system into an existing organizational structure.

Cet exposé examine les problèmes et les questions que les institutions d'éducation au niveau supérieur doivent considérer avant d'adopter un système technologique de communication pour faciliter l'apprentissage à distance. Nous émettons des suggestions pour résoudre les problèmes et surmonter les obstacles qui se présentent lors de l'intégration d'un système d'apprentissage à distance dans une structure existante.

## Introduction

Electronic instructional delivery systems have begun to assume an increasingly vital role in a university's effort to meet the continuing and professional education needs of distance learners. The selection and integration of these new delivery systems into existing organizational structures pose significant challenges to educators. Too often delivery technologies are selected either because of their sophisticated capabilities or their popular appeal without due consideration of their educational capabilities and the additional support systems they require to make the teaching learning process effective. The consequence of careless adoption of a technological solution may contribute to the failure of distance education programs.

Therefore, a study was undertaken to examine issues and concerns that postsecondary educational institutions need to address before a decision is made to adopt an electronic delivery system. The focus is on problems and obstacles that need to be considered and overcome when integrating a telecommunication system into an existing organizational structure. These problems and obstacles are discussed from the standpoint of institutions that are currently using communications technologies for delivering instruction at a distance.

## Methodology

The discussion is based on information synthesized from two sources:

1. A survey of 49 postsecondary educational institutions in the United States that use a variety of telecommunication delivery systems to deliver adult continuing and/or professional education (Gunawardena, 1988), and

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2. A case study based primarily on interviews conducted with administrative staff at the Oklahoma State Regents for Higher Education, Oklahoma State University ,the University of Oklahoma and the National University Teleconferencing Network (NUTN), who are responsible for two different types of electronic delivery systems. The two delivery systems are: a) a live interactive satellite videoconferencing network capable of producing, transmitting and receiving videoconferences, delivering programming to virtually all of the United States, and to sites in Canada and Mexico, and b) an interactive television instruction system or "Talkback TV," a network of point-to-point microwave, Instructional Television Fixed Service (ITFS), remote controlled switching equipment and leased telephone lines interconnecting 64 receiving sites in Oklahoma which delivers on-campus live instruction to remote sites.

## Findings and Discussion

Results of the survey indicate that the major obstacles cited by postsecondary institutions to the use of communications technologies are: production and distribution costs (37%), faculty resistance to television instruction (30%) and lack of institutional support (28%). Most of the other obstacles mentioned were those experienced by institutions delivering the instruction, seen from an institutional standpoint, rather than problems experienced by students. They were lack of quality pre-produced programs (19%), lack of funds (16%), faculty's unfamiliarity with the medium (14%), co-operation with a broadcaster or the lack of convenient transmission times (14%), lack of interaction in the technology (12%), lack of incentives for faculty involvement in television instruction (12%), establishing sites for satellite transmission (7%), inadequate equipment (5%), lack of control over production (5%), and lack of PR for television courses (5%). Very few (9%) mentioned the problems experienced by the distant learner (the lonely learner--low motivation and lack of interaction with others) and the difficulty of providing student support (7%).

One institution commented that the technologies were far less troublesome than the intra-institutional, political and bureaucratic integration of the program. This is because an alternative delivery system affects all other offices and procedures at the institution. Another institution pointed out that there was no campus policy and no interest in serving distance learners except where industry has demanded and paid for it. The second comment highlights a very crucial point that might have an impact on some distance education programs--the influence of industry in the decision-making of a campus to provide education to distance learners.

Findings from the case study are discussed under the following headings focusing on issues and concerns associated primarily with live satellite videoconferencing, delivering mostly ad hoc one-time non-credit programs. Most of the issues and concerns addressed apply to both telecommunication systems even though the "Talk Back TV" system is a transmission of a live on-campus classroom having certain considerations unique to its own technology.

### Cost and Related Issues

Telecommunication systems are expensive. This is especially so if the institution is planning on producing and transmitting its own videoconferences. The systems are expensive in terms of capitol expenditure and on going operational expenditure. Too often, administrators, fascinated by the potential and innovativeness of the technology have started planning for a telecommunication system thinking first, in terms of the hardware and the technical configuration of the system without paying attention to more crucial considerations such as: 1. The need for a system as determined by the current level of educational activity of the institution, 2. long-term financing to keep the system operational as opposed to merely start-up costs, 3. user density or the availability of a sufficient number of users to make the system cost-effective, 4. programming mix--the availability of a variety of programming to serve the needs of users, 5. decisions regarding the unit on campus that would be responsible for paying for the programming, 6. faculty availability and faculty expertise in utilizing various media, 7. facilities to house the telecommunication system and staff, and in the case of a receiving institution, a classroom suitable for electronic wiring. 8. type of arrangements with the receiving institutions and the equipment and facilities at these institutions.

Only after these considerations have been examined thoroughly and a decision is made that there is a need for a system and adequate funding to support it, should implementation questions relating to the type of system (whether point-to-point microwave, satellite, fiber optics, compressed video, etc.), the hardware and technical dimensions of the system be addressed. Sometimes, the decision to adopt a telecommunication system may be based on a host of other reasons rather than those stemming from sound educational planning, such as the desire to gain prestige or visibility in the academic community which may be influenced by the internal politics of that institution.

Telecommunication systems do not save money in the long run. Institutions investing in them should be prepared to take a risk. On the other hand, they provide an institution with the capability of serving a much larger audience not easily accessible by any other means.

### Administrative Support

Telecommunication systems have often failed because of the lack of support from the chief executive officers of that educational institution. Therefore, the full backing of the President and the Board of Regents of the institution is essential if the telecommunication program is to succeed. This is more so in the case of a transmitting than a receiving institution because of the high costs involved. Business and industry will not invest in a telecommunication facility for the average university, unless they have a special arrangement with that university. Although partnerships are possible, the university has to take the responsibility for the investment and provide services to the private sector.

Convincing the administration of the potential of telecommunication systems is no easy task. Most institutions of higher education have no appreciation for them. For graduate research universities, telecommunications offer tremendous promise for the management and dissemination of research. The private sector, especially multi-national corporations are rapidly investing in their own telecommunications networks. Yet these networks are utilized for business and industry for only short periods of time leaving a great capacity available for educational purposes. Universities can seize this golden opportunity not only to conduct conferences and workshops through the private sector networks but also provide programming to train private sector employees.

In order for a campus-based telecommunication system to succeed, it is not only important to have the backing of the chief administrators, but arrangements need to be made to assign the task to the right person, a person who is not afraid of technology, and give that person the authority to act. A great deal depends on the institution's continuing commitment to the program, and its willingness and ability to upgrade the system.

### Faculty Support, Training and Incentives

Faculty resistance to television instruction has been a major obstacle in institutions that have effected organizational changes to accommodate telecommunication systems. There is reaction to change stemming from fear and uncertainty that telecommunication systems might make their jobs obsolete or that the freedom of the professor in the classroom may be compromised. Often the totally unfounded argument that quality of instruction is compromised with electronic delivery systems is advanced to repudiate the investment in electronic media. Therefore, in order to gain faculty support for a new delivery system and to assuage their fears and clear misunderstandings, a concerted effort must be made to inform faculty and involve them in the planning and decision making stages for a telecommunication system. Those who will be called upon to make use of the system should be involved in the decision making process.

The average faculty member, although comfortable in delivering lectures to small as well as very large audiences, usually freezes in front of the eyes of several television cameras. Unfamiliarity with the use of the medium is another reason that contributes to faculty resistance to television instruction. Therefore, it is crucial to provide faculty training in the use of the new medium as it will break down their feeling of insecurity and fear of the new technology. It would be advantageous to have an instructional designer who can work with faculty on their presentations and coordinate activities between faculty and television producers.

Faculty members should definitely be given financial incentives to participate in the programming especially if the program doesn't generate any revenue itself. One way to do this would be to offer a basic fee and a percentage of the revenue generated. Just as important would be a plan to offer the academic department in which the faculty member is located a share of the revenue. This will encourage both the faculty member and the department to support the telecommunication program. It is also important to examine the reward system for faculty members and consider whether their participation in telecommunications programming can be credited towards their tenure.

### Activities at the Receive Sites

A variable that is often neglected but vital to the success of a videoconference is local programming to supplement a national broadcast. Many videoconference participants have walked away wondering why it was necessary to make a trip to campus to watch television for two or three hours. To make the learning experience worthwhile, receive sites must aggressively promote and actively coordinate the videoconference. This requires the services of a local coordinator who will actively plan, coordinate and promote the conference at a local site.

In a study of staff development teleconferences, Lawry (1986) found that the sites which organized local wraparound programs tended to be the most successful in terms of attendance as well as participant, coordinator, and institutional satisfaction as indicated by the site coordinator. Local wraparound programming that also includes carefully chosen printed support materials is a crucial element in ensuring that videoconferences are meaningful learning experiences for local participants. The most successful videoconferences have been those that were treated as a conference by the receive sites, where the satellite signal is just one component of the learning experience.

In the "Talk Back TV" system it is important to have a person who will be responsible for checking the receiving equipment, attending to technical failures and getting messages across from the instructor to the students and vice versa.

### Interaction between the Participant and the Presenter

Lawry (1986) has observed that many of the features which make the ad hoc national videoconference broadcast via satellite accessible to a vast number of independent educational institutions, also constrain its effectiveness to some extent. As the number of sites increases, the likelihood that a particular person or even a site will be able to interact with the presenter decreases. Yet live interaction is usually acknowledged to be a necessary element of an effective teleconference.

There are various means that can be employed to compensate for the limited interaction during air time. When the satellite video signal is over, audio channels using telephone lines can be kept open for participants to ask questions of the presenters. Participants can also be asked to mail in questions that will be answered by the presenters. Another technique is to request participants to come in half an hour before broadcast time, so that the local coordinator can poll questions that participants may have regarding the presentation topic, and then,call them in to the transmitting institution to be answered on air by the presenters. It is important that originators of videoconferences think of interaction in broader terms than just telephoned-in questions from the sites, and design activities that relate to the conference theme for participants at sites. This would provide a greater sense of involvement.

### Lead Time Required for Producing and Marketing Videoconferences

One of the unique advantages of this delivery system is that it can disseminate timely information or topics of current interest quickly to a vast number of people. However, the lead time required to produce and market a videoconference can sometimes be an obstacle to the ability to get information across quickly. It is possible to air a videoconference with one or two weeks notice, but the production quality of such a presentation will be poor, usually consisting of talking heads and charts. It is also not certain whether it would reach a wider audience as expected because of difficulties in making arrangements at receive sites. Usually, four months lead time is required for the production, and six months lead time for the marketing of an ad hoc videoconference.

There is an entrepreneural element and an element of risk involved in marketing a videoconference that the average academic institution is not comfortable with. It helps to belong to a consortium like the National University Teleconference Network (NUTN) that can market a videoconference to its member institutions. However, the institution originating the programming must also make a concerted effort to market the videoconference to institutions or academic departments that the consortium cannot reach.

## Conclusions

It has become apparent that future planners of electronic delivery systems must give careful consideration to a number of issues, concerns and obstacles before a decision is made to adopt and implement a telecommunication system to serve distance learners. Administrative support is vital to the success of a telecommunication program because of the major costs involved. Without such support it is unwise to even consider an alternative delivery system using telecommunications. Equally important is to ensure the availability of long-term funding to keep the system operational, and user density to make the system cost-effective. In integrating a telecommunication program, an important factor to consider is how this program will affect the activities of various departments and faculty on campus. It is crucial to obtain faculty support for the program before its inception and provide them with the necessary training and incentives to use the system. Giving special consideration to how a transmission will be used by the receive sites is of paramount importance to the success of a videoconference. Such consideration will ensure meaningful learning experiences for local participants.

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# THE SOCIAL CONSTRUCTION OF AGING AND EDUCATIONAL PROVISION FOR THE OLDER ADULT

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## ABSTRACT/RESUME

**L'éducation aux adultes âgés s'inspire des théories de gérontologie sociale qui reflètent une perspective normative et fonctionnelle et qui est biasées concernant l'adaptation de l'individu. En ne tenant pas compte du contexte socio-politique qui façonne l'èxpérience des gens âgés, l'éducation des adultes contribue à ce que la vieillesse soit une période de ségrégation et de désavantage.**

**Education for the older adult is modelled upon theories of social gerontology which reflect a functionalist and normative perspective and which are biased toward individual adaptation. By ignoring the broader socio-political structures that shape the aging experience, adult education is implicated in the construction of old age as a time of segregation and disadvantage.**

## Dilemmas in Providing Education for the Older Adult

The increasing size of the aging population in Canada and the higher levels of educational achievement of the population in general has occasioned a growing involvement of older people in educational endeavours. This trend is reflected statistically by a tripling of participation rates of those over 65 every three years (NCES, 1981). These statistics indicate a growing interest in and valuation of educational activities by older adults. Considering that job-related and vocationally-oriented education drops off dramatically after 65 (for obvious reasons which must be questioned), studies have shown that the content and processes of education undertaken by older adults is surprisingly similar to that of other age groups in regard to interests, motivation, and participation (Hiemstra, 1985). Given these facts, it is necessary to examine the theoretical assumptions and the policy implications behind late life education as part of what Estes (1979) has called the "aging enterprise".

Due to its 'specialist' nature, adult education for the elderly is linked to an "aging enterprise" composed of professional gerontologists, social workers, health care providers, and aging advocacy and interest groups. Yet there is no explicit 'policy discourse' regarding the rights and needs of older adults for adequate educational provision. Reasons for this relate directly to both the marginalized role of adult education in social service provision and the marginalized role of the aged within society in general. Thus, a major issue surrounding late life education is whether segregated provision is needed and desired or whether efforts should be directed toward facilitating the integration of the elderly into traditional and general educational programs. Reasons why the elderly do not participate in existing educational programs are, for the most part, lodged in situational, institutional and dispositional barriers similar to those experienced by other marginalized groups in society (Cross, 1981). Consequently, there appears to be a definite need to make educational programs available for the older adult which are situated in the day-to day context of their lives. Two problematic issues arise out of this conclusion: 1) that the lives of the elderly are increasingly interfaced and controlled by a professional cadre of service providers which is creating a structured dependency within the aged population; and 2) that the day-to-day context of the elderly is becoming more and more isolated from the general interactions of society due to the political and economic construction of old age as a time of superfluity and devaluation. It is around these two features - the structured dependency and social devaluation of the aged person - that the purposes and processes of adult education for the elderly in regard to social policy directives must be examined.

The dilemmas found in educational provision for the aged are related to the professionalization of these services (its becoming part of the aging enterprise). Adult education reflects the pitfalls inherent in professionalization, most markedly, in claiming the right to both *define* and *solve* the needs and problems of old age. This claim to expertise follows a social welfare model of ‘doing to’ or ‘doing for’ rather than a collaborative model of ‘doing with’ the client group. In regard to defining the needs and problems of the aged, knowledge of aging in the field of social gerontology must be examined; in regard to addressing those needs, the degree to which they are socially, economically and politically created must be explored. What is required, then, is a critique of the social gerontology knowledge base underlying older adult education theory and how that contextually relates to and socially legitimates the political and economic structures of society.

## Social Gerontology and Knowledge of Aging

Research and theoretical studies of aging in the field of social gerontology are, for the most part, based on functionalist and individualist paradigms (Walker, 1981; Marshall, 1986). It is suggested that the reasons for this have to do with the intrinsic connection between the dominant economic and political ideologies of a society and the social construction of knowledge. Canadian scholarship in this field displays a marriage between British and European "political economy" approaches and American apolitical theories of aging. In this sense, "Canadian theory of aging is more structural, collectivist and historically grounded than the predominantly individualistic and consensually oriented theorizing found south of the border" (Marshall, 1987). However, outside of a few isolated instances in academia highlighted by Marshall, Canada reflects and resembles an American bias in its policy and practices toward the aged.

Townsend (1981) has characterized the theory and practice of social gerontology as a form of "acquiescent functionalism" which "attributes the causation of problems to the difficulties of individual adjustment to ageing, retirement, or physical descrescence, while acquiescing in the development of the state, economy and inequality" (p. 6). This is reflected in such models as disengagement, activity, age stratification, and social exchange theories as well as normative life-span and human development approaches, all of which contribute to an analysis of the problems of the aged individual without substantial criticism of the broader socio-political and economic context in which these problems are created and experienced. As Dowd (1986) says "While preoccupied with morale, social gerontologists ignore the class bases of both aging and age relations" (p. 150). The result is an individualizing of problems both in theory and research in gerontology and in the practice of social work (through individualized case work). The view of aging as a social as well as an individual problem focuses on the aging population as the source of larger structural contradictions and tensions in society. In this sense, aging only becomes a social problem when *too many people grow old at the same time.* Rather than identifying the problems of an aging society as the inappropriateness of existing social structures to deal adequately with changing needs and priorities, a form of demographic determinism is embraced. The result is a "blaming the victim" mentality toward the old. (Levin, 1980, Binstock, 1983).

The conceptualizing of aging as a period beset with personal troubles and social problems has been fuelled by the field of gerontology because of its focus on the aged as a *separate* group. By emphasizing common and usually negative features of aging, gerontologists have contributed to an image of old age that is stigmatizing and that accents the differences between the old and other age-groups (Williamson, Evans, & Powell, 1982). Binstock (1983) has urged the profession of gerontology to expand its research and practice beyond just the aged, to include the study of *age relations* and "the value conflicts involved in public policy issues" that surround age relations (p. 143). Perhaps this is a move in the right direction if the field is to mature and develop a responsibility toward its subject matter. What is required is a reflective and critical approach toward the nature of age relations as they are mandated through the economic and political structures of society. Taking this bent even further, Marshall and Tindale (1978) propose the emergence of a "radical gerontology" that would locate the study of aging within the socio-historical context and would reflect the interests and aspirations of the aged, themselves. This would entail a collaborative approach rather than a control approach which currently characterizes both research in gerontology and practice in social work, medicine and other 'helping' professions. Moreover, such an approach necessarily includes an educational dimension that is bilateral and reciprocal between older persons and professionals. The implication of this "radicalizing" of professional gerontology has implications for all service-oriented agencies and institutions including adult education.

## Adult Education - A Functionalist Bias

Structural functionalist theories of society also dominate adult education and influence the content of programs made available for the aged. Until recently, educational policies have continually overlooked the elderly through what Grabowski (1980) has called "the politics of non-consideration". Reasons for this centre around the dominance of a human capital development ethos of education aimed at the advancement of economic productivity and growth through a trained labour force (Moody, 1988; Myles & Boyd, 1982). Situated on the periphery of vocationally-oriented adult education, educational provision for the older adult has focussed predominantly around transitional issues of retirement planning and recreational and leisure activities. In this respect, the elderly are served through the same human capital ethos, but through a reversal of socialization *out of instead of into* the labour force, the aged being "less essential to the needs of capital" (Phillipson. 1982). These transitional or coping needs are attributed to individually based problems of adjustment and adaptation, not as needs manufactured by the imperatives of a capitalist economy and the legislation of mandatory retirement. Griffin (1987) describes educational policy for older adults as follows:

> ....Such policies project the problems of capitalist society upon the elderly so that they are conceptualized as the problems of individual men and women in coming to terms with change, retirement, the loss of work identity and status, and so on. It is an 'individual pathology' model of policy.... What we are looking at, from this point of view, is an ideological construction of old age rather than simply a psychology of ageing, and therefore current educational policies for older people, in as far as they exist at all, may tend to reinforce their status as a special 'disadvantaged' category of provision (pp. 121-122).

The conceptualization of old age as a time requiring specialized and professional services leads to an educational ethos that defines the elderly as a singular group of learners with psychological and dispositional characteristics requiring special programs, policies, and practices quite distinct from other age groups. The purpose of this paper is not to totally refute this notion or argue against special or segregated programs for the elderly. What is being attempted, however, is to draw attention to the ways in which these special educational needs are decided and these special categories of 'disadvantaged' are framed and created within sociiety. Adult education, operating according to a professional ethic of 'helping' the elderly, will continue to buttress these assumptions about aging as long as it bases its practice on current theories of social gerontology and ignores the economic and political realities of the structured dependency and social disenfranchisment of the aged in contemporary society. What is overlooked in educational and social gerontology is the fact that there are what Crystal (1982) has called "the two worlds of aging" - the well-off and the poor. The middle-class elderly who participate in most educational programs are, in most cases, neither needy nor disadvantaged. As in other areas of the "aging enterprise", adult education espouses an ethos of serving the 'deserving' poor but, in fact, reaches few elderly who are needy and economically disadvantaged. By virtually ignoring the class basis in the creation of these needs, adult education does little to draw attention to or alter the roots of disadvantage in old age.

## The Need for Critical Theory in Older Adult Education

In looking at alternative purposes and practices of education in later life, we must turn toward theories of social transformation, community-based education and conscientization found in radical adult education literature. Adult education for the aged must begin to address broader needs and problems of the truly disenfranchised elderly and expand its vision beyond helping the middle-class elderly adapt from 'vocation' to 'vacation'. Theory, either functionalist or radical, is not enough, however, unless it is conceptually based in social policy debate, for adult education is becoming increasingly a state-directed and sponsored arm of social engineering. When educators fail to recognize the socio-economic basis to the vast range of needs and interests in the elderly population, they repeat the same mistakes being made by policy-makers who approach the diverse problems of the old through administering universal remedies. If adult educators want to serve the older adult, particularly those who are economically and socially disenfranchised by the larger forces of society, then both imaginative and innovative approaches are required. Emphasis must shift toward a critical examination of how education serves to maintain an image of the aged as a 'special' audience without truly questioning the construction of that 'specialness' in economic, political and social terms. Only in this way will the purposes and processes of education for the aged be adequately understood.

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# ADULT TRANSITIONS: AN ANALYSIS MODEL

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## ABSTRACT

Change is an inevitable aspect of life. Each individual deals with the various life transitions in his/her unique way. The following analysis model provides a means for understanding such transitions, with implications for counselling and learning.

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Les changements sont des aspects inèvitables de la vie. L'individu doit lui-même faire face et traiter ces différents stades de transitions. Le modèle analytique suivant offre donc une façon de comprendre de telles transitions ainsi que les implications nécessaires qu'elles apportent comme outils supplémentaires à la formation et à la consultation.

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Literature on adult development at times resembles a battle zone where the age/stage proponents are set against the social role or developmental task proponents. The belief of how adults develop is of course integral to how changes in adulthood are viewed and managed. The age/stage supporters will explain change in a 40-year old's life in terms of characteristics of inevitable, sequential transition stages. The social role or developmental task supporters will consider the same changes as functions of role expectations or of tasks of personal development. Further complications arise in categorizing and slotting in expected/unexpected changes, or male/female developmental changes. With such a variety of beliefs to choose from, the person faced with a transition or with helping another in transition may rightly feel confused. The questions then arise, "Is it necessary to support only one adult developmental theory?", and, of course, "How can it be determined which theory is "right"?"

Analysis or helping models are a natural extension of perspectives which encompass assumptions and beliefs. Existent counselling models reflect this in how outcomes are labelled. Those models with a sociological bent define success or failure in society-based terms. Models which emerge from a psychological perspective would describe outcomes as successful if personal development was gained. Here the problem becomes one of value. Labelling outcomes as successful or non-successful implies measurable boundaries. Are these boundaries realistic? If outcomes were viewed differently, perhaps value judgement would not be necessary.

What seems to be required is some way of viewing transitions which would allow for all developmental theories without detracting from any of them, which would avoid labelling outcomes in terms of failure or success, and would provide a global picture of the transitional process. The challenge is to provide such a model without compromising simplicity and flexibility. This transition analysis model proposes to fill this gap. Through the three-phase analysis, a transition can be simplified. Through the unique configuration of pre-cursors to transition, all developmental theories can be examined in a transition-specific context. Through an avoidance of value-judged outcomes, exits from transitions can be analyzed as "different" rather than better or worse. Through the model's encompassing perspective, transitions can be viewed more globally. Simplicity and flexibility of use follow.

## Background

The model was developed largely through discussions of personal changes and of readings in adult development. Literature did not define the form of the model; rather, it was used to support parts of the model.

## Proposed Users of the Model

1. Individuals
2. Teachers/facilitators
3. Counsellours, especially where non-crisis counselling is required.

## THE MODEL (FIG. 1)

Self-directed learning research reveals support for the concept of learning to name our processes. As a learner gains expertise in naming his/her experiences, and reflects upon them, he/she gains an amount of power over and control of the learning. The same concept applies in this model. As individuals learn to recognize and name the factors impacting on their lives, they

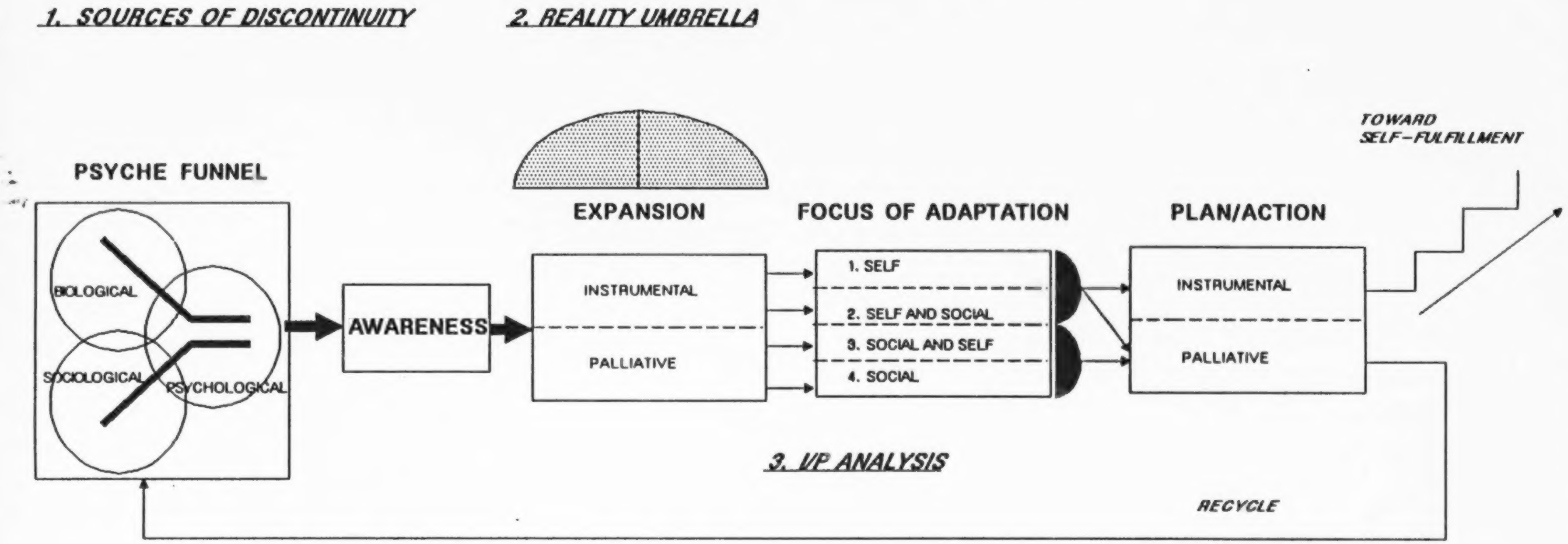

Fig. 1 – Adult Transitions: An Analysis Model

(Helm & Patrick, 1988)

bring attention to them. With this focussed attention, the possibility of taking control of the process increases.

## Assumptions

1. The analysis process is intended to be transition-specific.
2. Exit from any transition indicates, not an end, but a continued movement toward the next change, or toward a refinement of the experience through recycling.

## The Phases

### 1. Sources of Discontinuity

In order to see where one is heading, one must know where one has been. Whether a transition finds source in the biological, sociological, or psychological domain, it must acquire some meaning and must be consciously sensed. This phase is described in two parts; (a) sources as channelled through the psyche funnel, and (b) awareness, where an individual becomes increasingly aware that psychological disharmony is evident.

### 2. Reality

Gathering baseline data is integral to analyzing any kind of change. In order to determine the amount, direction, or type of movement through a transition, an individual should examine perceptions of personal reality. Of importance to the guidance through a transition, is the realization that two realities exist simultaneously - the internal reality (psychological) and the external reality (sociological). These two may or may not reflect each other, with implications for those in helping roles.

Because realities are so pervasive, they serve as an umbrella under which specific concerns are considered; biological realities, sociological realities, psychological roles, past baggage, past transitional success, and control.

### 3. I/P Analysis

The three main components of the analysis are expansion, focus of adaptation, and plan/action. Both the expansion and the plan/action are best described as instrumental, a struggle *for* something, or palliative, an escape *from* something negative. How an individual expands his/her knowledge under the reality umbrella is intimately linked to what plan of action will be followed to exit from the transition. This expansion is focussed through a lens; a lens which takes into consideration an individual's adaptive disposition. That is to say, a person may aim for total psychological harmony or may be strongly influenced by expectations of society, or may aim for a balance in between.

Two pathways emerge. The instrumental pathway is characterized by a strong desire to examine and interpret the transition with a view to understanding its source, its meaning, and its potential impact. Individuals show a desire for education rather than for training. Learning is seen as an opportunity and the knowledge acquired becomes a tool to be used rather than an end in itself.

The palliative pathway will reflect a search for a means to avoid pain. The individual prepares to deal with those aspects of self and reality that prove useful in taking care of the situation for now. Expansion is limited and does not go beyond that immediately required. Since the search is for relief, the plan of action for the palliative focus is remedy oriented, as in training or retraining.

There is a point at which the instrumental pathway can cross to the palliative dimension. Individuals on the instrumental pathway may be in such psychological pain that they may choose a palliative plan. It is a conscious decision to delay resolving the transition as desired, and to follow a path that offers quicker relief.

### Outcomes

Exit from a transition culminates in action, with that action allowing movement toward something positive or away from something negative. It is proposed that the instrumental pathway leads toward the next transition on the stairway to self-fulfillment. The palliative pathway provides a means by which an individual gains the ability to cope with the transition. The individual who is satisfied with that coping would not, according to this model, move toward self-fulfillment. He/She has not thoroughly examined the psychological implications of the change. In order for this to occur, he/she would need to refine the movement through the transition again at a later time by recycling.

# LA TELE-CONFERENCE ASSISTEE PAR ORDINATEUR DANS L'ENTREPRISE VERS UNE STRATEGIE DE FORMATION EN COURS D'EMPLOI ET DE PERFECTIONNEMENT CONTINU

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## Résumé

La recherche nous a permis d'analyser différents modèles d'utilisation de la téléconférence assistée par ordinateur (TAO) et d'élaborer un modèle conceptuel de formation à distance au sein d'une grande entreprise: le Mouvement Desjardins. Elle prévoyait également l'opérationnalisation d'une grille d'analyse de messages, des consignes de traitement des messages et des consignes d'animation des communications assistées par ordinateur.

This research on computer teleconferencing for business training, implies the design and the analysis of a conceptual model based on distance education principles. After an experimentation with eleven financial advisers of Mouvement Desjardins, the research team points out how to use teleconferencing as an instrument to follow learning process and to diagnose skill problems which subjects have in resolving learning problems and the impact on the organisation.

## Introduction

L'introduction du traitement de texte, du chiffrier électronique, des bases de données, l'accès au courrier électronique et aux conférences assistées par ordinateur via la communication télématique, entraînent une profonde transformation du travail. Les recherches de Hiltz[1] ont permis de cerner les transformations provoquées par l'informatisation du travail et de les répertorier en quatre grandes catégories:

- le décloisonnement des perspectives et des activités professionnelles,
- l'accroissement de la fonction de communication,
- la transformation des notions de temps et d'espace
- le changement des habitudes de travail (intensification du

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[1] Hiltz, Roxane. (1985) On Line Communities: A Case Study of the Office of the Future. Ablex Publishing Corporation. New Jersey.

rythme de travail, meilleure organisation, travail à la maison,...)

Cette transformation qualitative du travail requiert une période d'adaptation professionnelle qui n'est pas uniquement à la charge de l'employé. L'employeur détient une responsabilité importante quant à la formation et au perfectionnement de son personnel dans ce domaine.

Or l'intégration des différents outils de bureautique dans l'entreprise et plus particulièrement la téléconférence assistée par ordinateur, sont susceptibles de transformer l'approche traditionnelle de la formation en cours d'emploi. Les résultats de recherche sur l'utilisation des nouvelles technologies dans des contextes de formation (Bates[2], Harasim[3]) démontrent les nombreux avantages de la téléconférence assistée par ordinateur comme moyen d'apprentissage.

## Limites et objectifs

A la suite d'une pré-expérimentation menée au printemps 1988 et de l'expérimentation de l'automne auprès de onze agents-conseil du Mouvement Desjardins répartis dans autant de caisses populaires de l'est du Québec, nous avons relevé quatre facteurs importants qui méritent d'être étudiés en profondeur afin de parfaire et de compléter notre modèle; il s'agit de facteurs liés:

1- à l'organisation (infrastructure de support à la formation, ressources pédagogiques, sécurité et protection des données);

2- aux habiletés des utilisateurs à se servir de la téléconférence assistée par ordinateur;

3- à l'extériorisation des habiletés cognitives et métacognitives par les participants;

4- à l'appropriation du processus de résolution de problèmes par la téléconférence assistée par ordinateur (TAO).

La recherche nous a permis en outre d'opérationnaliser et de valider ces facteurs et variables qui s'ajoutent au modèle en:

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[2] Bates, A.W. (1986) "Which Way For Information Technology in Distance Education"." in Revue de l'enseignement à distance. Vol.1, No 1.

[3] Harasim, Linda. (1987). "Teaching and Learning On-Line: Issues in Computer-Mediated Graduate Courses" in Canadian Journal of Educational Communication. Vol 16, No 2.

A) procédant à une étude d'impacts pour:

   a) mesurer le degré de satisfaction des gestionnaires de la formation sur l'utilisation de la téléconférence assistée par ordinateur (TAO);

   b) identifier les facteurs qui affectent l'implantation de la TAO dans le processus de la formation;

   c) gérer les changements qui affectent l'organisation ainsi que l'approche et la démarche de la formation (conception, production, évaluation);

B) mesurant le degré d'habileté requis pour utiliser efficacement la téléconférence assistée par ordinateur (TAO) par les agents-conseil;

C) concevant une grille d'analyse des activités cognitives pour fournir au formateur un outil fiable et fidèle de support à l'apprentissage;

## Hypothèses

A partir des recherches portant sur les téléconférences assistées par ordinateur (Hiltz et Turoff[4], Haile et Richards[5]), il est possible de formuler des hypothèses sur l'effet de certains facteurs sur l'efficacité de la téléconférence comme mode de perfectionnement en cours d'emploi.

### Hypothèse générale

> L'introduction de la téléconférence assistée par ordinateur (TAO) dans le cadre d'un programme de perfectionnement offert aux agents-conseil financiers du Mouvement Desjardins sur les nouveaux services d'aide à la retraite, favorisera l'apprentissage.

### Hypothèses spécifiques

Hypothèse 1: effets des attitudes sur l'utilisation des téléconférences assistées par ordinateur.

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[4] Hiltz, R., Turoff, M. (1978).The Network Nation. Human Communication via Computer. Addison-Wesley, Mass.

[5] Haile, P., Richards, A.J. (1984) Supporting the Distance Learner with Computer Conferencing. New York Institute of Technology. New York.

1.1 Les agents-conseil financiers qui auront des attitudes positives par rapport à la téléconférence assistée par ordinateur, l'utiliseront davantage que celles qui auront des attitudes négatives.

1.2 Les agents-conseil financiers qui auront des attitudes positives par rapport à la téléconférence assistée par ordinateur, exprimeront un plus haut niveau de satisfaction par rapport au système et l'évalueront de façon plus positive; on trouvera des corrélations positives entre le niveau de satisfaction, l'évaluation du système et les variables reliées à l'utilisation du système.

Hypothèse 2: effet du niveau de littéracie sur l'utilisation de la téléconférence assistée par ordinateur.

2.1 Les agents-conseil qui auront un plus haut niveau de littéracie tel que mesuré par leurs habitudes, leurs attitudes, leurs comportements et leurs habiletés par rapport à l'écrit, utiliseront davantage la téléconférence assistée par ordinateur, produiront davantage de messages et communiqueront de façon plus efficace.

Hypothèse 3: effets de la téléconférence assistée par ordinateur sur l'apprentissage.

3.1 L'utilisation de la téléconférence assistée par ordinateur contribuera à développer les processus de compréhension de l'information transmises dans le cadre du programme de perfectionnement.

3.2 L'utilisation de la téléconférence assistée par ordinateur facilitera l'apprentisaage des processus de résolution de problèmes nécessaires à la réalisation de la tâche de conseiller en programme de préparation à la retraite (programme de formation choisi dans le cadre de l'expérimentation.)

3.3 L'utilisation de la téléconférence assistée par ordinateur contribuera à développer des habiletés cognitives requises pour conseiller les clients dans l'utilisation des services de préparation à la retraite.

## Déroulement

L'expérimentation proprement-dite s'est déroulée sur une période de six semaines, (du 19 octobre au 2 décembre 1988) dans le cadre d'un cours préparé par le Mouvement Desjardins "La préparation financière de la retraite". Ce cours est divisé en quatre parties d'une semaine chacune au cours desquelles les participants pourront discuter, via la TAO et uniquement lors des deuxième et quatrième semaines, des solutions aux problèmes qui leur sont posés. Des animateurs et experts interviennent alors sur le système pour aider les participants dans leur démarche de résolution de problèmes.

Une analyse exhaustive des messages (protocoles) permettra de vérifier la présence et le rôle des variables (niveau de litéracie, nombre et longueur des messages, médium TAO, formation traditionnelle, etc...). Lors des deux autres semaines, les participants discutent de leur solution aux problèmes directement avec un expert, via le téléphone ou le courrier seulement.

### Impacts du projet sur les organisations

Les avantages pour les organisations d'implanter et d'intégrer la téléconférence assistée par ordinateur dans le processus de formation et de perfectionnement se situent à plus d'un plan:

1- Augmentation de la qualité de la formation: échanges nombreux et formateurs entre les participants, les experts conseil et les administrateurs; accès à des banques d'informations numérisées; nouvelle dynamique de formation fondée sur la participation active du personnel à former.

2- Rentabilisation des équipements de bureautique grâce à une rationnalisation des coûts de déplacements, à la diminution des absences du personnel en formation et à l'intégration de ces nouvelles technologies éducatives au processus de formation et de perfectionnement continu.

3- Développement du sentiment d'appartenance des employés dispersés à travers la province (Région de Québec, du Saguenay-Lac St-Jean, du Bas Saint-Laurent et de la Gaspésie) au Mouvement Desjardins.

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NB Les résultats finals de cette recherche seront connus à l'automne 1989. Cette recherche, subventionnée par le Centre francophone de recherche en informatisation des organisations (CEFRIO) et la Télé-université, a été supportée par la Confédération des Caisses populaires et d'économie Desjardins du Québec.

# Qualitative Feedback in Distance Education: A Case for Focus Groups

by

R.D. Hotchkis and C.A. Nelson

## Abstract

Dans ce document nous discutons le besoin d'amélioration de recherches qualitatives conduites par les institutions de recherches concernant l'éducation à distance. Ceci devrait augmenter le nombre actuel des méthodes de recherches quantitatives prévalentes actuellement utilisées. Une courte liste des raisons justifiant une plus grande utlisation de l'approche qualitative est fournie ici, suivie d'une étude utilisant une méthode d'entrevue convergeant sur le groupe. La réponse institutionnelle à la méthode convergeant sur le groupe, renforce notre opinion que les méthodes qualitatives comblent des lacunes d'information sur l'éducation à distance.

In this paper we argue the need for more "qualitative" institutional research conducted in the area of distance education. Qualitative institutional research should augment the pervasive quantitative research methods currently employed. A brief list of reasons favouring increased use of qualitative approaches is presented, followed by a case study using the focus-group interview method. The university's favourable response to the focus group approach reinforces our view that qualitative methods bridge an information gap.

## Introduction

Positivistic, quantitative research dominates North American social research, especially in distance education. Institutional research,[1] like other forms of research in traditional and distance educational institutions, follows this tradition and employs positivistic paradigms and quantitative methods (Morgan, 1984).

Counts of students, the distributions of their demographic, behaviorial and attitudinal characteristics, and similar mathmatical and objective measures are thought to meet the information needs of managers and staff at post-secondary institutions. (Rockhill, 1982; Morgan, 1984) The critical question we ask is whether, or to what extent, the information needs of academic and senior institutional management are indeed met by such approaches.

Building on an established and recently increasing trend in the social sciences and adult education we contend that the *whole person in her social context* should be the target of our research activities (Rockhill, 1982; Morgan, 1984; Taylor & Bogdan, 1984; Minnis, 1985). Quantitative approaches are not able to encompass the complexity of human experience in the way that qualitative approaches may. Minnis (1985) argues that quantitative approaches "tend to reduce the complexity of human experience to statistical analyses and the verification of facts." Qualitative and interpretive approaches incorporate many different aspects of the person and therefore appear to achieve a holistic focus. We argue that this type of approach provides more grounded information to managers and staff of distance education institutions, that, in turn, enables them to construct polices that are more responsive to the needs of students (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).[2]

## Qualitative Research in Distance Education

While we think that there is a general need for more qualitative research in many areas, there are specific reasons why qualitative research is particularly needed in distance education. In traditional face-to-face education, it is understandable that there is little felt need on the part of the staff to have any qualitative research done about students (Morgan, 1984). After all, staff see and communicate with students on a daily basis, or at least talk to others that have done so. They get their qualitative impressions of students with the morning coffee, so to speak. In distance education institutions the situation is quite different.[3]

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[1] Institutional research refers to researches conducted by universities to supply managers and staff with information.

[2] Though we argue for more holistic, qualitative approaches, we also recognize the validity and necessity of quantitative methods.

At Athabasca University, and others (Morgan 1984), there is little in-person contact between the managers and staff at the central offices and the students and tutors "out in the field". What contact there is is likely to be limited to telephone contact (McGuire, 1988). McGuire also discovered that academic staff in distance education institutions perceive disadvantages as a result of little in-person contact. In the words of one of one faculty member:

> I find the lack of student contact here a tremendous deficit. I argue with the people here who say that tutoring is equivalent. I don't even think it's close.

It is important to note that most, if not all, of the staff in distance education universities have received their education, at least at the undergraduate level, as young people in traditional institutions. Consequently, few of those providing distance education have actually experienced what it is like to: (1) be an *adult student* at the undergraduate university level or (2) to *study at a distance*.

Therefore, in addition to the problems of getting to know students at a distance, there two types of fundamental *experiential gaps* existing between the providers of distance education and those adult students who are taking it.

Qualitative research provides information to staff to bridge these *experiential gaps;* it does this by retaining the human factor in the data.

## The Case of Administrative Studies Students at Athabasca University

The question that prompted this "focus group" project was a request to determine how Administrative Studies students experienced their studies at Athabasca University (AU). To discover and present a realistic and personal view of student experiences, we sought a detailed understanding of a few students, rather than a cursory knowledge of many. We chose the focus group interview as the most appropriate method for gathering qualitative data.

### *Method*

The key to the focus group method is the use of a group interview. The term "focus" refers to the fact that discussion is limited to a few topics that are dealt with in-depth. The main reasons for our choice of this approach was its claim that participants may more open and frank in a homogenous group setting than in a structured interview setting used in survey methods; it is relatively inexpensive; and data can be gathered quickly.(Parasuraman, 1986; Kops & Percival, 1988)

The main disadvantages of this method are the lack of descriptive statistics about larger populations, and suggestive rather than definitive results (Babbie, 1986; Kops and Percival, 1988). However, for the purpose at hand, to provide description that is rich in detail of some randomly selected Administrative Studies students, the advantages outweighed the disadvantages.

In our project two categories of Administrative Studies students were selected for the focus groups interviews: those students who had withdrawn from a course at AU (withdrawers) and those who had taken at least nine credits at AU (serious students).

The selection of students was further limited by choosing only those in the Edmonton area. The study results therefore have an urban bias.

### *Procedures*

We developed a topic list (moderators' guide) and held a trial session with a group of seven students. This trial served to test the moderators' guide, the moderators' skills and the recording equipment. Subsequently, three focus group interview sessions were held: one with withdrawers and two with serious students. The following main topics were discussed:

— the participants' educational goals, past educational experience, and whether credentials were/are important to them;
— the reasons for choosing AU;

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[3] We limit our discussion to those institutions that specialize in distance education.

— whether there had been any change in the participant's educational goals since taking Admin. Studies courses at AU;
— the general experience of doing home study university courses at a distance;
— opinions regarding course structure;
— experience with AU staff contact;
— experience with tutor contact;
— experience with course design and materials;
— reasons for withdrawal (only for withdrawers);
— course and program needs (only for serious students).

The authors each had group-interview experience and received additional training by researchers from a marketing research firm. We acted as dual moderators in the focus group. The discussions were video-taped and transcribed.

The analysis consisted of the selection of samples of the distinct points of view expressed by the students in the focus group interview sessions. One researcher made an initial selection of the appropriate comments. These were then critically vetted by the other who played the role of "devil's advocate" and checked the video tapes for gesture responses. A selection of sample comments was agreed upon and arranged under topic headings.

### *Results*

The results of the discussions provided a substantial amount of information about many issues. However, they did not provide as detailed an understanding as we anticipated. The original question were too broad as they covered the students' experience at home and at work, their experience with their tutors and with office staff, and their experience with the course materials. However, this general evidence proved useful. Aspects of student experience surfaced that normally would not have been considered in a survey. For example, when study materials were discussed, some students immediately compared AU courses to those that they had taken elsewhere. As researchers, we had not thought of comparing AU course materials to in-class instruction. Thus, the information provided valuable insights into students' appreciation of the quality of AU courses packages.

Also, the students' experiences are clearer, more understandable, and more immediate when reported in an anecdotal, rather than a statistical, fashion.

## Example of the Results: Student Experiences with Home Study

One focus group interview topic was the experience that students had with self-paced home study. The students in the group were eager to share their experiences with us. One student said that because of his study at home over the last few years:

> My wife thinks I'm cheating on her! I've left her for a book. I spend all my time in THAT ROOM! If she tries to come in I growl at her.

One woman's experience illuminates the need for obtaining support from family and friends—and the difficulty of getting it.

> I knew what my husband went through when he was studying, and I started when he finished. He was very supportive. I think your friends and family don't realize how much time it takes. You have to say, "I can't do that tonight because I've got an exam, and I have to study." Or "My tutor marked exercise has to be in by such and such." You're on a schedule. It took them awhile to realize that I couldn't just drop everything and go out. I've got my own schedule set. I've only got this much time to finish the course. I don't want to extend it. I don't want to be going to school for 15 years. I want to get on my way. It took awhile for everyone to realize that I was serious about it. They thought, oh yeah, you'll take a course or two, it's correspondence so you'll drop out.

Another woman added:

> I find it's hard to shut the door and be in your own room and study. You have your family and it's hard to say "I don't want to talk to you tonight because I have to study." They want you to be there all the time for them. You have to learn to be really selfish and say "I'm going to do this for myself, I'm going to DO it!"

From these comments it is clear that distance education home-study makes makes great demands on adult students, especially when it is necessary to juggle their study time with family responsibilities.

Student attitudes on studying at home vs. studying in groups were varied. Some missed student interaction, others preferred the independence of home-study, while other saw benefits and disadvantages of both modes. One student stated:

> I liked studying at home better. The student interaction is definitely missing, but as far as the amount of knowledge that I can take in and the amount I can get out of it, I would sooner spend the time at home.
>
> That's quite interesting. My dad teaches at a university in industrial arts and he's absolutely amazed at the discipline I have compared to what he puts up with his students. He's amazed that I stuck with it. Well, I just set out for a goal, and in the the long term I'm going to benefit—I'm doing it for myself.

Students spontaneously compared AU courses with those they took through other traditional educational institutions. They stated:

> I work harder at AU courses than I did at the U of X.
> It's very different learning at the U of X compared to learning with AU. With AU, you're doing it for yourself because you absolutely want it. At the U of X, when you've got an exam the next day, you read the night before. For me, I'm acing this course at AU with honours marks. I didn't at the U of X, because you didn't have the discipline to study all that stuff. You didn't know what the prof was going to come up with—whether he was going to use the book notes or the class notes—they were sometimes not the same. So you'd just luck it out and see what happened. But the commitment to studying wasn't there.
> One of the things I've noticed is that I've taken a lot more time to finish a course through AU, and that I've done a lot more! ... At U of X, I would go and write the exam and not hand in any of the assignments (several nods of agreement).

## Conclusion

The focus group technique, as a qualitative method, provided useful insights into the world of the adult distance education student. It provides a more detailed description of student experiences of studying at a distance than quantitative methods. It also shows some new aspects of student experience that can lead to further qualitative and quantitative research. The anecdotal form of the written results provides vivid sources of insight into distance students' experience. The report has been used by academic staff to aid with decision making on a variety of internal issues. Three benefits of the project were noted:

1. It provides systematic qualitative data
2. It confirms what everybody knows from experience, but tells it directly from the students' perspective.
3. It shows that institutional researchers are able and willing to provide qualitative as well as quantitative data on request.

The benefits of the focus groups as a form of qualitative research are beginning to become recognized as a useful tool of institutional research on the AU student body. Since the completion of this study, there have been a series of small group interviews for a preliminary study of the needs of native students in a new program. Others have requested focus group interviews to study the needs of full time students, and other groups.

There are distinct benefits of using the focus group technique in providing a qualitative "snapshot" of students. Its main advantages are that it can be used with ease to provide fairly quick information at a relatively low cost.

In sum, qualitative research, based on our experience, is particularly useful in distance education, where there is a geographic space and experience gap between the educational providers and students. The focus group is a useful practical qualitative research tool that is able to produce new insights into and confirm existing ideas about the distance education student in his or her social psychological context.

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# L'AUTOREGULATION DE L'APPRENTISSAGE ET L'APPRENANT ADULTE

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Résumé : Le self-monitoring et l'autorégulation sont déterminants pour la réussite de l'apprentissage. Ces deux notions comportent plusieurs confusions qui se trouveront clarifiées si on considère la première comme nécessaire à la secende. On pourra ainsi mieux comprendre cetains aspects de l'apprentissage de l'adulte.

Abstract : Self-monitoring & self-regualtion are important activities in the succes of learning. But there are confusions that can be clarified if we consider self-monitoring as a necessary condition for self-regulation. By so doing it becomes easier to understand some aspects of adult learning.

## Introduction :

La métacognition peut être définie de façon générale comme étant "le savoir ayant pour objet le savoir " lui-même ou la capacité de réfléchir sur ses propres processus cognitifs (Flavell, 1981). Elle se divise en deux composantes majeures : 1) la conscience de soi comme apprenant ou comme être cognitif et 2) l'autorégulation de ses propres processus cognitifs. Plusieurs auteurs ont souligné l'importance d'étudier le phénomène de l'autorégulation étant donné son rôle dans la réussite de l'apprentissage et dans l'autonomie de l'apprenant (Zimmerman et Martinez-Pons, 1986), ainsi que dans l'apprentissage continu et autodidactique (Bondy, 1984).

## Problématique :

L'autorégulation est souvent confondue avec le suivi ou self-monitoring de l'apprentissage dans beaucoup d'écrits. La notion de self-monitoring, réfère à la capacité de l'individu de s'évaluer et de vérifier le déroulement de son apprentissage. Dans les écrits, les notions de self-monitoring et d'autorégulation sont utilisées tantôt l'une pour l'autre, tantôt la première est considérée comme une composante ou encore comme une étape nécessaire à la réalisation de la seconde. En plus, l'individu peut faire l'autorégulation d'un grand nombre d'activités cognitives (résolution de problème, communication, apprentissage etc). Le but de cette présentation est de clarifier ces deux notions ainsi que les notions qui s'y rattachent et de les situer par rapport à l'apprentissage de l'adulte. Le self-monitoring sera considéré, ici, comme une activité plus ou moins automatique, plus ou moins consciente qui précède l'autorégulation et la rend possible. Les écrits seront examinés en fonction de cette distinction car elle permet d'éviter un grand nombre de confusions, et situe mieux les implications de l'autorégulation par rapport à l'apprentissage de l'adulte.

### Mécanisme de l'autorégulation :

Le suivi ou *Self-monitoring* signifie que l'apprenant en plus d'être conscient de soi comme être cognitif divise son attention entre le contenu et le processus. C'est cette division de l'attention qui signale à la conscience les difficultés ou obstacles qui nuisent au bon déroulement du processus d'apprentissage (Rigney, 1980).

L'autorégulation est un réajustement continuel qui implique une grande activité de la part de l'apprenant et nécessite d'abord la planification et la réflexivité, (Gaveleck et Raffael, 1985) en plus du suivi par l'individu de sa démarche d'apprentissage. Le rôle de l'autoquestionnement et de l'auto-évaluation dans l'autorégulation a été souligné par plusieurs auteurs (Gavelek et Raffael 1985) car celui qui a appris à se poser les questions appropriées, pertinentes et significatives a appris à apprendre.

La notion d'autorégulation implique l'entrée en jeu de mécanismes de correction pour résoudre les difficultés détectées grâce au suivi ou *self-monitoring*. L'autorégulation aboutit au contrôle du processus d'apprentissage par l'apprenant lui-même (Derry et Murphy, 1986) et à son indépendance par rapport à l'enseignant. D'après Gaveleck et Raffael (1985) un individu est considéré comme étant métacognitivement conscient lorsqu'il devient un "système auto-correcteur", quelqu'un qui a appris à apprendre. Un tel individu joue un rôle actif dans l'orientation et direction de son propre apprentissage.

### L'autorégulation et l'apprenant adulte :

La plupart des recherches qui ont été consacrées à l'autorégulation ont étudié le phénomène chez des enfants ou des adolescents mais rarement chez l'adulte. En effet, plusieurs auteurs soutiennent que le *self-monitoring*, est plus fréquent chez l'adulte que chez l'enfant (Brown, 1978). Cependant les enfants sont capables de *self-monitoring* dans des tâches faciles. De même la capacité de faire l'autorégulation se développe avec l'âge (Bondy, 1984). Il est possible de rencontrer des jeunes enfants qui sont capables d'autorégulation dans les tâches faciles et des adultes qui sont déficients dans l'autorégulation de leur apprentissage. Les exigences de la tâche d'apprentissage ou sa difficulté, l'expertise de l'apprenant dans le domaine sont autant de facteurs qui interagissent avec l'âge (Brown, 1980). Aussi, l'intelligence et l'autorégulation sont considérées comme intimement liées par cette auteure.

Brown (1980) soutient qu'il est important d'étudier l'autorégulation chez les adultes afin de mieux clarifier ce qui manque chez les "apprenants immatures", ce qu'ils pourraient apprendre et ce qui pourrait leur être enseigné. Les "apprenants immatures" sont souvent incapables de dire quand ils ont atteint un but d'apprentissage, ne distinguent pas clairement ce qu'ils ont appris de ce qu'ils n'ont pas appris. Souvent ces apprenants suivent des instructions ou exécutent des tâches sans se demander pourquoi ils font ce qu'ils font, sans s'interroger sur leur fonctionnement en tant qu'apprenants et sans évaluer l'éfficacité de leur performance (Costa, 1985). Au contraire, les apprenants "matures" disposent d'un mécanisme déclencheur qui leur signale une incompréhension par exemple et la nécessité d'utiliser une stratégie corrective. Le débutant échoue à performer de façon efficace là où réussit l'apprenant expert, grâce à l'autorégulation de ses actions

Enfin l'autorégulation serait acquise à travers l'interaction sociale principalement entre l'adulte et l'enfant, l'expert et le débutant par la suite. Aussi, d'après plusieurs auteurs (ex : Bondy, 1984), l'autorégulation peut être enseignée ou améliorée par différentes interventions pédagogiques, ce qui se traduit par une plus grande réussite de l'apprantissage.

Autorégulation et autonomie :

C'est le savoir métacognitif de l'individu qui lui permet de fonctionner comme apprenant indépendant (Gaveleck et Raffael, 1985) ; les habiletés de self-monitoring lui permettent d'identifier ses propres erreurs et suivre son progrès (Rigney, 1980) et fonctionner comme un système auto-correcteur. Selon Rigney, dans les premiers stades de l'apprentissage, plusieurs de ces décisions peuvent être faits par le système éducatif (professeur, examinateur) mais pour atteindre l'expertise dans un domaine l'individu doit utiliser tout seul les habiletés de self-monitoring qui le libèreront de la dépendance du monitoring externe. De même pour Dewitz et al (1987) dans un environnement favorable les apprenants devraient passer de la régulation par autrui à l'autorégulation. Pour cela, on réfère souvent au processus d'autorégulation en utilisant des expressions comme "self-instructed, self-reinforced, or self-controlled learning (Zimmerman et Martinez-Pons 1986).

Enfin d'après Costa (1985) beaucoup d'apprenants échouent car ils n'exercent pas suffisamment d'autorégulation sur leur propre démarche d'apprentissage. Zimmerman et Martinez-Pons (1986) ont trouvé une forte corrélation entre les stratégies d'autorégulation et la réussite scolaire.

## Conclusion :

La notion d'autorégulation est donc plus claire et plus aisée à comprendre si on la distingue du self-monitoring ; tout en maintenant que ce dernier est nécessaire à la réalisation de la première. Le schéma proposé plus loin permet ainsi à notre avis de mieux saisir la notion d'autorégulation dans son articulation avec le self-monitoring, et les autres notions qui s'y rattachent. "L'apprenant mature" (qui est souvent un adulte expert), serait celui qui parallèlement à sa démarche d'apprentissage effectue un suivi ou self-monitoring et donc s'observe et évalue sa propre démarche d'apprentissage. Cette activité lui permet de détecter les erreurs ou problèmes qui surgissent. La démarche d'apprentissage cesse alors d'être rapide et automatique. Ce ralentissement conscient rend possible l'autorégulation c'est-à-dire la recherche de solutions au problème détecté et leur application. Lorsque l'apprenant ne réussit pas à résoudre le problème par lui-même deux possibilités s'offrent à lui à savoir : 1) l'abandon de la tâche d'apprentissage, ou 2) une demande d'aide à un expert. Il ne s'agit pas néanmoins de régulation par autrui car c'est l'apprenant lui-même qui prend cette initiative. Enfin, c'est cette activité d'autorégulation qui rend possible l'apprentissage continu et l'apprentissage de type autodidactique.

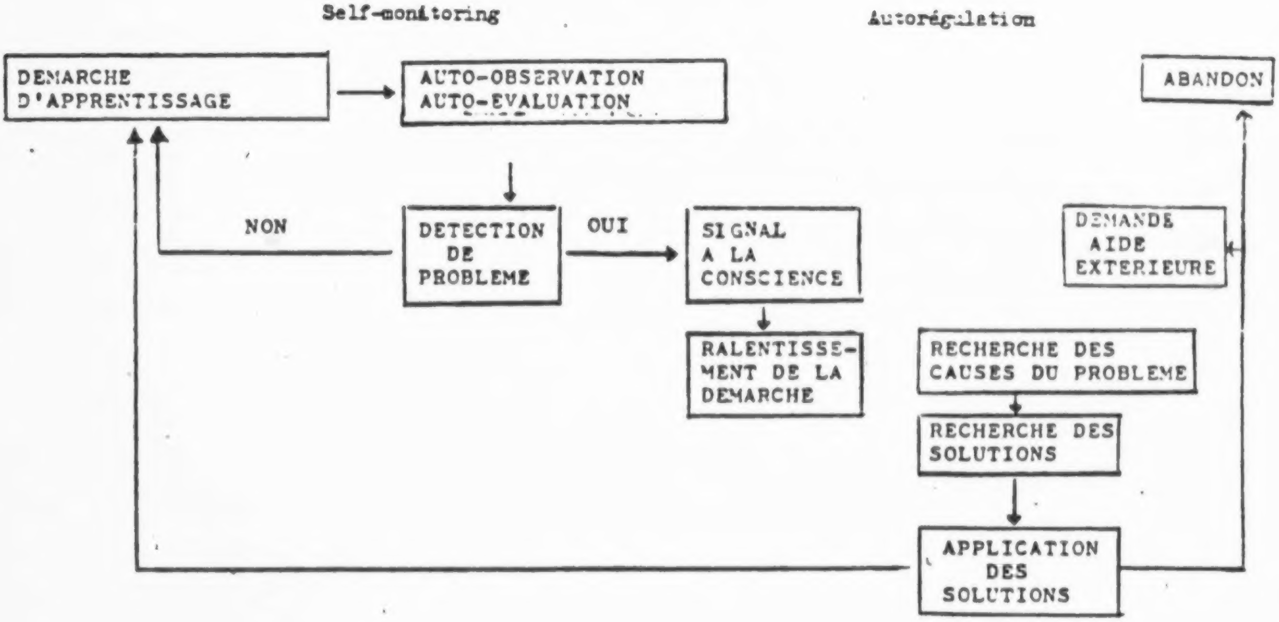

Tableau synthèse du fonctionnement de l'autorégulation chez l'apprenant autonome.

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# THE SOCIAL IMPACT OF IDEAS: INTENTIONAL MUTUAL ENLIGHTENMENT IN VANCOUVER, 1886-1916

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**ABSTRACT:** Ideas, often contrasting ideas, were invoked by turn-of-the-century Vancouver, British Columbia clubs and associations of intentional mutual enlightenment. It is argued that mutual enlightenment was a socially acceptable method of transmitting culture, and that its meaning was expressed in those ideas.

**RÉSUMÉ:** À la fin du siècle à Vancouver en Colombie-Britanique, les idées, et souvent les idées opposées, étaient invoquées par les membres des clubs et sociétés dans le but de se cultiver mutuellement. On propose que cette éducation mutuelle était une pratique courante pour transmettre la culture, et que ces idées exprimaient son sens.

## Introduction

> Use your Club as a window through which the best and the purest light of the United States, of the Old World and of the New, can shine upon the life of your town, and by the warmth and brightness of their rays contribute to the enlightenment of your city.[1]

Earl Grey, Governor-General of Canada, quoted in the above passage, captured the missionary zeal behind the promotion of enlightenment through voluntary associations. His statement, in support of Vancouver's new Canadian Club, founded 1906, further suggests that such enlightenment, mutually fostered through club and society, should also extend, as light, outwards to envelop the city.

The Canadian Club, as with many other nineteenth- and early twentieth-century clubs and associations, was founded by those people who were highly sensitive to the disruptions and rudeness characteristic of many a Canadian city's social, economic, and physical environment, and to the need to promote and develop a new civic and national consciousness. These same men and women were also amongst those most highly conscious of the European elitist ideals of "culture" and "civilization." Intentional mutual enlightenment, to them, was a socially accepted and applauded vehicle for the expression of such middle-class-based ideals as "self-improvement," "self-help," "aesthetics," and rational and scientific enquiry.

Briefly, "intentional mutual enlightenment" refers to non-formal adult education through voluntary associations. These organizations sought to educate their own members, and often the public, in the arts, in history, in science, in public affairs, and in matters of physical, vocational, and moral welfare.

From as early as the late eighteenth and especially during the nineteenth centuries, a myriad of middle-class (and later working-class) scientific and cultural clubs and societies were formed throughout the English-speaking world in response to the spread of such ideas. Most notable were the innumerable English literary and philosophical societies, and the mechanics' institutes. Often born out of informal mutual improvement groups, meeting regularly at members' homes, they later re-organized into formal organizations, with elected leaders and formal organizational and pedagogical procedures. For many, their interests were catholic, with a single organization covering a wide range of subjects, including medicine, English literature, modern languages, history, geography, economics, mathematics, and, especially, experimental science. Others, however, concentrated on singular interests, expressed as a dramatic or antiquarian society, or as a natural history or musical club.[2]

Vancouver at the turn-of-the-century, and in keeping with spread of these ideas and educational forms throughout America and the British Empire, saw the founding of its own scientific, cultural, social, and civic associations. They had been formed by the city's residents in one of the British Empire's last frontiers. To survive and to develop, to become an attractive community, and to dominate in regional economic and cultural development, Vancouver's citizens needed to make, out of a disparate and fragmented set of cultural artifacts, an appropriate cultural, intellectual, scientific, technological, recreational, and moral backdrop to the everyday business of earning a living. The city's Art, Historical and Scientific Association, its natural history and literary societies, and its YM and YWCA are central to the discussion.[3]

## A Social History of Ideas

The study of intentional mutual enlightenment at the turn of the century is a social history of ideas and of the means by which they found social and material expression. It examines the interrelationships between ideas, and their social, political, and economic contexts, and how this interaction gave rise to mutual enlightenment. It draws upon the work of Raymond Williams[4] for his outstanding historical analysis of key nineteenth- and twentieth-century cultural and social concepts. In particular, this study shows how discrete groups of persons, through the influence of their social class and ethnic background, and in interaction with their ideas about a properly cultured person, shaped their conception and practices of mutual enlightenment.

## Ideas and Intentional Mutual Enlightenment

Paramount amongst these ideas was "order." The search for social order was each association's response to the threat of aesthetic, social, economic, and political disruption, and even chaos. These calamities were being brought to Vancouver with increasing waves of unenlightened speculators and immigrants, of "philistines" and "barbarian" masses. The Art, Historical and Scientific Association's Edward Gosnell and Gertrude Mellon, the Arts and Crafts Association's Robert Mackay Fripp, and the YMCA's "Vigilant," for example, all urged that civilization be defended through the enlightenment of their associations' members and of other local residents. Social order, and other relevant ideas, thus framed desires to uplift and strengthen the material and civil condition of their city, of their homes and workplaces, and ultimately, of their new nation.

The Art, Historical and Scientific Association, for example, promoted beauty, utility, high culture, nature and science, and patriotism. Their ideals, however, became manifest through different programmes for different clienteles. Though the Association offered itself as a kind of educated "clerisy," proferring cultural enlightenment for all, it quickly became esoteric and elitist in its promotion of enlightenment. Only those who had the requisite up-bringing, education, and natural sensibilities, it became apparent, could actually become members. Thus only the city's more prosperous and educated classes attended the Association's palour-style lectures and conversaziones.

Vancouver's other citizens, the "great masses," had to find their own enlightenment through the Association's Cook-Vancouver Museum and Art Gallery. Here, a utilitarian emphasis served primarily to attract bourgeois support. It fit the Association within the ideological structure of the nineteenth-century's "useful knowledge movement." Workers and their families should learn applicable knowledge, might acquire some aesthetic and spiritual uplift, and generally should be distracted from the harsher aspects of their lives. Utility, for both Association members and museum visitors, thus, was treated intellectually. Experimental practice and application were generally ignored.

The Canadian Club and Women's Canadian Club, and the Women's Musical Club's regular (non-performing) members, as well, were intellectual and elitist in their approaches to mutual enlightenment. The Musical Club sought to express beauty and high culture through its recitals and concerts. To a limited degree, the Club also saw their work as an expression of patriotism. The Canadian Clubs, on the other hand, expressly promoted patriotism. Their lectures centred upon Canadian and British economic, historical, sociological, geographical, cultural, and political topics.

Like the Art, Historical and Scientific Association, the programmes of all three clubs reflected their mainly upper middle-class constituencies. The Musical Club also expressly provided musical edification for the lower classes through charity concerts and recitals. Further, for the Club's performing members, the Club arranged music training and practice, and organized and sponsored subsidiary choral and symphony societies. These members performed in recitals and concerts for the regular beneficiary members. The Canadian Club's outreach was mainly through the newspaper publication of the text of each lecture.

In contrast to the above organizations, and especially the Art, Historical and Scientific Association, the Arts and Crafts Association, the Naturalists' Field Club, and the British Columbia Mountaineering Club all emphasized utilitarian ideals. Their members aimed to acquire useful artistic, scientific, and observational skills, not just intellectual or aesthetic knowledge. Equally, by teaching skills and imparting knowledge, these organizations sought to enlighten their members to the aesthetic and romantic concepts of Beauty and Nature.

Significantly, the Arts and Crafts Association and the two natural history clubs idealized co-operative and mutual sharing of each other's aesthetic and scientific knowledge and skills amongst all members. Through ongoing informal exchanges of knowledge, augmented with formal lectures and classes, the members--architects and craftsmen, or botanists and geologists--taught each other something of their own specialties.

Further, any and all outsiders were welcome to join these societies. This contrasted with the elitism of the Art, Historical and Scientific Association, the Women's Musical Club, and the two Canadian Clubs. The Arts and Crafts Association and the two natural history clubs were imbued with ideals of social progress added to their romantic and utilitarian aims. For some members, these ideals possibly included goals of social and political transformation. These organizations drew upon the romantic, and communal, images of William Morris and John Ruskin, but re-interpreted them to fit a more "primitive" Canadian context. The organizations expanded thus their membership aims to include working-class and lower middle-class members of both sexes. All the members were invited to participate in the same fashion, and with the same capacity and responsibility, as the professionally-skilled members.

Finally, some organizations sought to embody ideals of efficiency, and manliness or femininity, to complement many of the above ideals. They also and more openly aimed to promote social and moral control. Notable exemplars of these goals and ideals were found within the educational and socialization programmes of the YMCA, the YWCA, and the Burrard Literary Club.

As with the other organizations, these associations were formed in response both to threats of disorder, and to new opportunities for individual and class advancement. They were part of the evangelical Protestant movement for social reform and control. As such, their programmes aimed to protect young adults, and to train, educate, and socialize them to better deal with a world in transformation. Furthermore, their promoters self-consciously acted to define and crystallize a new middle-class consciousness. In particular, they wanted to bring about a more practical, efficient, and democratic culture.

These associations thus provided effective and accessible opportunities for all social classes. They aimed to ameliorate and fulfil missed educational chances, moral character, and personal industry and efficiency. They believed that talent could be better distributed throughout commerce, industry, the trades, and the professions. Finally, they sought improvements in social and political standards.

## Conclusion

Vancouver's various clubs and societies invoked different ideas. In turn, mutual enlightenment varied dramatically in practice and success, both within and across the different associations. It reflected how the ideas were interpreted, especially in relation to specific clienteles. Thus, inspired by certain streams of thought, individual associations were formed to complement the character and meaning of these ideals. The organizations, in turn, drew their members from those who favoured similar ideas. When ideals within a single association conflicted, however, so did the members, and so suffered their association.

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# GRADUATE DISTANCE EDUCATION: A STUDY OF THE AIMS AND DELIVERY SYSTEMS

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In exploring attitudes to graduate distance education, six graduate deans and the six corresponding distance education directors were interviewed. Although there were several differences in perspective and opinions between deans and directors, the fundamental difference surrounded the necessity and superiority of on-campus instruction. The conclusion of the study is that there is a real need for dialogue among deans and directors to promote understanding of roles and beliefs.

## Resume

Dans le but d'examiner leurs attitudes à l'égard des études graduées à distance, six doyens d'études graduées ont été interviewés ainsi que les six directeurs d'éducation à distance correspondants. Les doyens et les directeurs ne s'accordent pas sur plusieurs points. Fondamentalement, ils divergent sur la nécessité et le mérite d'un enseignement dispensé sur le campus même. L'étude conclut à un impératif de communication entre doyens et directeurs si l'on désire promouvoir de chaque côté une meilleure compréhension des rôles et des perspectives en jeu.

The study reported in this paper involved the analysis of structured interviews with six graduate deans and the six corresponding administrators responsible for distance education at each of the institutions. An interview schedule was constructed and piloted with personnel at The University of Calgary and the University of Alberta. As a result of these pilot interviews, the interview schedule was revised and sent to the interviewees prior to the interviews. The interviews were conducted over the teleconference system of the Faculty of Continuing Education at The University of Calgary.

## Deans' Responses

The most commonly described characteristic of graduate studies that differentiates it from undergraduate studies, according to the deans, was the independence required of students, although several of the Deans also mentioned the intense interaction between the students and the faculty members as an equally important factor. The basic objective of graduate studies was seen to be the production of new knowledge and in developing a student so as to be capable of changing the body of knowledge. Several deans also stressed the requirements and support required to educate graduate students as being a distinction between the two levels of students.

All of the deans interviewed stressed the maintenance of standards and the controlling of the quality of graduate programmes as the primary function of their offices. While administrative tasks and the issue of upholding regulations and procedures were the day-to-day substance of the office, it was the maintenance of quality that was the primary raison d'etre.

Graduate degrees obtained only by course work, were thought to be useful for a number of groups by several of the deans interviewed, however, they were not seen as contributing to the discipline since they generally lacked a research component. While one dean indicated that at his institution even course based graduate degrees were required to have a research component, another dean indicated he saw little difference between course based Masters degrees and fourth-year undergraduate studies, yet conceded that the degrees were indeed a form of graduate work.

Most of the deans had reservations about the possibility of maintaining academic standards in a graduate course delivered at a distance. While conceding it was theoretically possible, most felt that there were substantial difficulties and expressed a strong bias towards face-to-face instruction. Of particular concern was the ability to assess the participation of students and the provision of facilities such as research libraries.

The majority of the deans indicated that they had limited or no experience with graduate studies at a distance. Consequently, there were reservations about whether a student who studies at a distance has the same level of achievement as an on-campus student with the same grade. For several of the deans the crucial element was the amount of student-professor and student-student interaction that was possible. Another dean indicated that it would vary on the nature of the discipline. In a subject which emphasized the thinking process and the ability of students to express themselves, evaluation would be difficult at a distance. One dean who did have experience with a graduate programme delivered at a distance indicated that it was not the maintenance of academic standards that produced problems but rather the administrative problems associated with dealing with distance students. While none of the deans indicated that their institutions made any distinction between graduate courses or programmes delivered at a distance and those on-campus, it was noted that there was not a great deal of experience with the issue. However, one dean was strongly in favour of some form of differentiation and suggested different course numbers and identification might be appropriate.

Virtually all of the deans felt that it was not feasible to offer complete graduate programmes at a distance, although one or two conceded that it might be possible, with difficulty, in certain subject areas. There was doubt as to the ability to maintain the required graduate supervision at a distance, however, as one dean indicated, some students require virtually no supervision while others almost need the supervisor to write the thesis. One dean felt that if the financial resources allowed, it might be possible to maintain a degree of close supervision by computer communication but was not prepared to risk it with doctoral students. Only one dean felt that it was possible to maintain an adequate degree of supervision at a distance.

There was a considerable variation in the extent to which graduate deans felt that their institutions were obligated to make programmes accessible off-campus. Three of them felt that there was a degree of obligation on the part of the institution, although one confined his comments to the undergraduate level. One other indicated that because of the large number of universities within the region there was no need for distance education and another indicated that there had been no demand for the institution to offer graduate programmes off-campus. Finally, one dean indicated that he felt there was no responsibility for his institution to provide programmes off-campus.

Most of the deans indicated that they felt there was little, if any demand for graduate programmes and courses at a distance. Education, business and the professional health programmes were areas of some interest, but there was apparently little direct pressure on institutions to provide new programmes or expand existing ones. With regard to pressure inside their own institutions, the deans indicated that there was little, if any, originating from Faculties or departments. Although one dean indicated that the Faculty of Nursing at his own institution had originated a programme delivered mainly at distance. One dean summarized the situation by commenting that most faculty members are conservative by nature and prefer to carry on with the status quo in terms of teaching and programme delivery.

The fact that U.S. based institutions were delivering programmes into Canada did not cause any great consternation on the part of the deans. While in several cases the deans were aware of programmes in their regions, in other instances it appeared there was little impact from U.S. institutions. One dean, however, indicated there was some pressure from students registered in these programmes who wanted to transfer into programmes in his own institution and consequently he felt there was a need for some degree of control on the U.S. programmes.

On the question of resources required for graduate programmes at a distance, the access to libraries, laboratories and to the supervisor were mentioned. As to who should pay, it was generally agreed that any dramatic increase in graduate programmes at a distance would only be as a result of government funding, although several of the deans were skeptical of such funds being available. The majority felt students accessing graduate programmes at a distance could be expected to pay a surcharge, although this was unlikely to be popular with students. One dean was of the opinion that no matter whether the resources were available or not was not the issue, since distance instruction was not a proper substitute for face-to-face classes.

All of the deans indicated that they would prefer to see the distance education operation integrated into departmental offerings rather than as a separate and distinct operation, however, one dean did indicate that some professors were considerably better and more proficient than their fellows in teaching at a distance.

The graduate deans were unanimous in that a residential component was essential in a distance education graduate programme. The self educational aspect resulting from the interaction between students as well as the opportunity for intense supervisor-student interaction were commonly mentioned factors. In addition the ready access to libraries visiting speakers and seminars were also seen as strengths of a residential component.

There was some variance in the deans' knowledge of distance education technologies, some indicating they had no knowledge while others appeared to have some, if not expert knowledge of the technologies employed. There was disagreement as to whether the technologies gave sufficient opportunity for student-student and student-teacher interaction. While several of the deans felt that a high degree of interaction could be obtained through technological means they queried the cost. Other deans were skeptical that it was possible and in any case, felt it was not a sufficient substitute for face-to-face instruction. The majority of deans indicated that they felt that many of their concerns about graduate education at a distance will be addressed as technologies evolve although several queried the cost and felt that this was still some time in the future. One dean noted that even on-campus universities still have to make an effective use modern technology.

When asked about the future prospects for graduate distance education, the deans had mixed opinions. While several thought it was likely the demand would increase, one dean thought it was unlikely it would receive government financial support. Other deans indicated that they did not foresee a need in the immediate future and one indicated that distance delivery would always be a viable second-rate form of delivery.

There was considerable doubt that resources will, in the future, become available for graduate distance programmes. It was pointed out that for most Universities there is already a financial struggle to maintain traditional programmes, however, one dean indicated that government funding might be available if it saw distance education as a cheaper way of doing things.

When asked whether the aims of graduate studies preclude the extensive use of distance delivery methods, only one dean indicated that he felt that graduate programmes could be delivered in a satisfactory manner by distance delivery. For most of the others there were reservations, although it was pointed out that for certain types of professional or quasi-professional programmes it might be possible. The reservations centered on the process of graduate education rather than the product. As one dean indicated if the aim is simply to award degrees then it can be done.

### Director's Reponses

When asked about their knowledge of graduate studies, the directors generally expressed that they have little contact with graduate studies and therefore have a limited knowledge of their function. While they did feel there was a difference between graduate and undergraduate programmes (eg. thinking and reasoning skills, research orientation), these differences were not sufficient to preclude offering courses at a distance. In addition, whether a graduate programme had a thesis requirement, or not, did not seem to pose major problems for the directors.

Without exception, all directors felt that standards can be maintained in graduate distance education. One individual felt that standards per se were not the issue. Instead the issue was resources to acquire the technological infrastructure. Interestingly two institutions distinguish between distance delivered and on-campus courses for transcript purposes and one institution restricts the number of courses delivered at a distance that any one student can take.

Not one director felt that supervision in a graduate programme was a problem given the communication technologies. In fact, one director believes that communication would improve with the use of computer messaging. Another director stated that given the communications technology "the notion of the professor as the dispenser of truth, the fountainhead of knowledge, and the person at whose feet students come to study, is vaporizing". As such, the role of the supervisor is changing to that of a facilitator.

The question of residency appears to be a more complicated issue. Most directors concede that residency should be determined by course content demands. However, several feel that such courses are the exception, assuming that a range of technologies are available. As one director states, "there is merit in people reasoning together, the sharing of ideas, ... I don't think there is anything sacred about the university setting relative to that". In other words, communications technology can facilitate needed interaction in any setting. On the other hand, residency may be a political matter. Speaking of a proposed graduate distance education programme one director suggests that a residential requirement may make it politically more acceptable. This person states that "I am probably leaning more toward saying that there should be a residential requirement, however, that is more of a political statement I think at this point, to make it more acceptable to the university community itself than it is required in the programme".

Resistance to graduate distance education is found in both the faculties of graduate studies as well as other faculties and their members. Much of this resistance is, according to the directors, a matter of not being well informed as to what distance delivery methods are capable of. In addition to misinformation, this resistance may be due to a lack of resources. A couple of directors stated that it is difficult to convince a faculty member to teach a distance education course (due to fear of the unknown and preparation time), but once having done it they invariably believe it is a viable alternative.

There is unanimity on the part of the directors in feeling that the university has an obligation to make their programmes accessible off-campus. The responses are best summed up by the director who said that "it seems to me that the time has passed when there is a sacred turf for learning". The demand for graduate distance education from the students was described as strong, growing and regular. It is also important to note that the directors themselves were generally advocates for the students. Clearly the professional faculties (eg. nursing, education, engineering, and management) were the programmes most frequently requested at the post-undergraduate level. A revealing statement that may be reflective of the situation in many universities is that "there are faculties who would like to be involved, but when it has been raised then they have said no, were too busy, we have all the full-time students we need".

In terms of educational resources the first thing that comes to mind for most of the directors is establishing library support and access to information. However, for one director support goes beyond simple access: "I think the main resources are in the linkages that are required, the student support, the opportunities to interact with one another, the strengthening of students' interaction and the student-professor interaction". Half of the directors felt they were reasonably well equipped technologically and therefore appeared not to disagree with the above statement. Three of the institutions had a differential fee rate with distance education students paying more.

Most directors did not have a problem with this. One director stated that new developments in his/her institution come form redistributing existing resources.

The first question asked of the directors regarding methods of organization and delivery was whether they would prefer a distinct or integrated organizational approach. Five directors clearly favour an integrated approach. The reasons are that there would be a greater chance "of standardizing your programme and delivering an equivalent programme off-campus". There is also a positive transfer to on-campus instruction: "I think that the skills that are developed by the distance education instructor is going to help him or her on-campus in their classes as well". The dissenting director who indicated a preference for a distinct distance education unit conceded the need to relinquish control to faculties regarding approval of instructors.

All the directors felt that modern technologies provide sufficient opportunity for student-professor and student-student interaction, although there is always room for improvement of existing delivery systems. In terms of the existing systems, all indicated a use of multiple media with two institutions regularly using four distinct technologies/media. Print with audio teleconferencing are used by virtually all the institutions. Other media used were video, audio, and computer. It also seemed clear that most were in the process of investigating the use of computer messaging. Finally, while most were fairly satisfied with the technological side, there was a concern about instructors teaching on an overload basis. Such a situation does not facilitate adequate training regarding the proper use of distance technologies. As one director states, "we still have people who are spending far too much time lecturing on the teleconference system who are not taking advantage of the telewriters because that's more work and I just don't have time".

Although most of the directors are not sure exactly what the policy of graduate studies is regarding distance education, they do not feel that the aims of graduate study preclude graduate distance education. At present half the directors feel there is competition from the U.S. but were not threatened by it. It would appear that the directors believe that they should meet the competition that will surely increase in the future and not try to restrict it artificially. There is consensus that the demand for graduate distance education will increase although the directors are not as sure that the supply will increase. This demand will come from professional groups and industry itself may begin to meet that need. Several directors feel the university must do a better job of lobbying for graduate distance education. As one director suggests, "it is our job to lobby and to show the demand is there for graduate studies at a distance ... I don't think we have really that".

## Discussion and Conclusion

It is fairly clear that the deans and directors differ significantly on several key issues. The most fundamental is the necessity and perceived superiority of on-campus instruction. On the one hand, the deans feel that without a considerable proportion of face-to-face instruction as well as a research component the graduate degree will be second-rate. On the other hand, the directors do not believe that a residency requirement is necessary given the existing communication technologies. The directors generally feel that the deans are not as well informed regarding distance education possibilities as they should be. This is not confined to the deans of graduate studies but is also seen to be true of most members of other faculties.

There are two areas of general agreement between the deans and directors. The first is that virtually all respondents agreed that graduate distance education should be integrated within the traditional program if it is to exist. Secondly, neither group was particularly concerned with the competition from United States schools in offering graduate programs in Canada.

# LESSONS FOR MANAGERS OF ADULT LITERACY LEARNING

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## Abstract

This paper focuses on the literacy campaigns of Nicaragua and Tanzania, extracting from those experiences some important lessons for managers of adult literacy learning.

## Résumé

Ce travail étudie les campagnes d'alphabétisation du Nicaragua et de la Tanzanie, tirant de ces expériences d'importantes leçons pour les administrateurs de programmes d'alphabétisation.

The accounts of the literacy campaigns in Nicaragua and Tanzania read like adventures. When the Tanzanian literacy campaign began in 1970, the country had a population of 13 million, including 7 million adults of whom 75% were illiterate (Malya, 1979). Nicaragua, at the beginning of its literacy campaign in 1980, had a population of 2.7 million with a 50% illiteracy rate (Arrien, 1988). In spite of the size of the problem, Tanzania reduced its illiteracy rate from 75% to 39% in five years (Mpogolo, 1982), while Nicaragua reduced its rate from 50% to 23% in one year (Arnove, 1981). While some might see these accounts merely as interesting stories, to managers of adult literacy learning they are more like maps, showing possible routes to success. The purpose of this paper is to draw managerial lessons from the literature by re-tracing these two somewhat different routes to success.

## LESSONS ABOUT CONTEXT

It might well be assumed that time, money, eager learners, adequate materials, trained teachers, and dedicated adult education organizations would be the major factors leading to success, yet if Tanzania or Nicaragua had allowed the absence of these factors to discourage them, the success stories could never have been written. The picture was rather bleak in both countries.

In 1980, Nicaragua was left ravaged by a war in which 40,000 were killed, 100,000 were wounded, and 40,000 children were left homeless. Their over-thrown dictator had escaped with his life and a large part of the national reserve, leaving the country with a $1.6 billion international debt, and only $3.5 million in national reserves (Cardenal & Miller, 1981). Believing in the importance of literacy for rebuilding the country, they gave themselves one year to eradicate illiteracy. Not only did they lack time and money, but they had no literacy nor adult education organizations to point the way. There were neither available materials nor trained teachers for the campaign. Added to all of these problems was the fact that literacy teachers had formerly been spies of Nicaragua's dictator, leaving villagers with less than positive attitudes toward a literacy campaign (Cardinal & Miller, 1981).

Tanzania was also poor and dependant on international aid, but because the president viewed literacy and adult education as the way toward self-reliance and development leading to interdependence, he called for the eradication of illiteracy by 1975. This five-year time frame could hardly be considered adequate, taking into account the number of learners to be reached. Lack of money and time were not the only limitations. They had no adult education organizations on which to depend, few trained teachers, and a shortage of materials. Besides all this, there was a general apathy toward any kind of schooling, partly because it was seen as an intrusion into family and tribal affairs (Michel & Maimbolwa-Sinyangwe, 1988), and partly because many of those who had become literate previously had now lapsed into illiteracy (Malya, 1979).

There are valuable lessons that can be drawn out of these experiences. Although the contexts were bleak in both cases, the campaigns were successful, and much of this success must be attributed to the sense of mission and "missionary" zeal which existed, making it possible for the organizers to transcend the problems and meet the need for literacy. This process is explained in the following set of lessons about organizing.

## LESSONS ABOUT ORGANIZING

Both Nicaragua and Tanzania organized their literacy campaigns by first of all defining their philosophy or purpose of adult education and then clarifying their goals and objectives. They then created structures that were adequate for dealing with strategic issues, thus enabling them to meet their goals. The following table outlines the philosophy, goals and objectives, and the structure of both of these campaigns:

TABLE 1: **Comparative Analysis of Organizational Strategies for the Literacy Campaigns in Nicaragua & Tanzania.**

| | **NICARAGUA** | **TANZANIA** |
|---|---|---|
| **PHILOSOPHY** Purpose of Education | **Liberation**<br>development of critical-thinking skills for decision-making and for action | **National & Self-development**<br>development of critical-thinking skills for decision-making and for action |
| **GOALS and OBJECTIVES** | **Democratize Society**<br>- eliminating illiteracy<br>- establishing adult ed. nation-wide<br>- encouraging integration and understanding among different classes<br>- developing skills for creativity, cooperation, & analytical thinking. | **Promote Economic & Social Justice**<br>- eradicating poverty & ignorance through a literacy program emphasizing participation & community development |
| **STRUCTURE** with Strategies for Funding | **Structure to handle foreseen difficulties of the National Literacy Campaign**<br>- Foreign assistance requested & granted<br>- Fund raising through raffles, concerts, etc. | **Structure to handle an ongoing National Adult Education Program**<br>10% of National education budget set aside for adult education |
| Meeting Physical Needs of Teachers & Students | - mobile medical teams provide health care<br>- teachers inoculated, taught first aid, & given medical supplies<br>- food distributed<br>- glasses supplied | - health care & nutrition taught to students by specialists<br>- glasses supplied |
| Communication & Follow up | - short-wave radio networks created<br>- transportation coordinated with help of Ministry of Transport<br>- Peasants' Agricultural School set up | - rural libraries and radio networks set up<br>- regional newspapers published<br>- correspondence courses designed<br>- Folk Colleges set up |
| Enlistment & Training of Teachers | - enlistment through existing associations<br>- training & consultation through National educators' association | - all teachers & civil servants enlisted to teach<br>- training supplied by universities |

There are important lessons that can be learned from the Nicaraguan and Tanzanian experiences of organizing their literacy campaigns. It was not their philosophy, or their goals and objectives, or their particular structure that brought success. Rather, it was the **cohesion** and **consistency** between these elements, and a **commitment** to the philosophy and the goals that made for effectiveness. The next task at hand was to develop and implement a program, and this leads us to a third set of lessons.

## LESSONS ABOUT PROGRAMMING

In order for programming to be effective, it must meet the needs of the participants. As has already been shown, in both Nicaragua and Tanzania the goals of the campaigns were based both on the needs of the people and on the country's philosophy of adult education. Out of these goals came a structure to meet the goals and to meet the needs. In both cases there was recognition of the fact that **needs cannot be separated from the adult learner's experience**, and this meant that creativity and flexibility would be needed to create and implement appropriate programs. In the case of Nicaragua, not only were primers and teachers' guides written, but games such as scrabble were also developed and distributed (Cardenal & Miller, 1981). As far as quality is concerned, Arnove (1981) found the materials to be based on "solid scholarship" reflecting careful pedagogical and linguistic planning. In areas where the contents of the materials produced a negative reaction, there was flexibility for change to more acceptable materials such as the Bible. In Tanzania, writers' workshops were set up to provide quality materials (Malya, 1979). All of the materials had to be congruent with a methodology suited to the adult learner, and thus consistent with the goals. In both cases, adults were involved in dialogue and encouraged to think critically. Primer lessons began with a subject of discussion. Sentences, once understood, were broken down into phrases, then into words, and finally into syllables, thus enabling learners to form new syllables, new words, and finally new sentences (Arnove, 1981 & Malya, 1979).

Flexibility and creativity were also essential to an adequate scheduling scheme for meeting the needs. After seven months of planning, only five months remained for Nicaragua to meet its goals. This required learners and teachers to dedicate two to three hours a day, six days a week, to literacy learning (Cardenal & Miller, 1981). In Tanzania, where the time frame allowed for a less strenuous schedule, two hours a day, three days a week were dedicated to literacy learning (Mpogolo, 1982). In both cases, creativity and flexibility lead to programs that were appropriate to adult learners because they **integrated the learner's needs and experience.**

Finally, in both cases, there was a feedback system to evaluate whether goals had been met. In Tanzania, individuals were considered literate when they were able to read and write letters within the family, locate streets and buildings, observe danger signs, follow simple instructions, read newspapers to obtain information, keep records, and read instruction books on topics such as health, family, and farming (Malya, 1979). In Nicaragua, individuals were considered literate when they could read and write their name, read a short paragraph aloud, answer a set of reading comprehension questions, write a dictated sentence, and write a short composition (Cardenal & Miller, 1981).

The lesson gained from the programming experiences of both countries is that meeting needs of adult learners cannot be accomplished without taking into consideration the experience of the learner. Programming must be based on the integration of the learner's needs and experience.

In the recent popular management text In Search of Excellence, authors Peters and Waterman have demonstrated the necessity of integrating mission, shared commitment, and meeting client needs as the key to success in managing organizations. The experience of the Nicaraguan and Tanzanian campaigns serve to corroborate the Peters & Waterman thesis in that the success variables for effective management are also fundamental to adult education provision. When searching for ideas on how to create successful programs, adult education managers need to consider the insights from other adult education campaigns as part of their reading materials. The Nicaraguan and Tanzanian campaigns provide meaningful additions to the existing management literature.

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# L'INSTRUMENT D'ACCUEIL AUTOGERE

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Issu d'une préoccupation spécifique au Collège de Lionel-Groulx, l'investigation et le développement d'un instrument d'accueil autogéré a su créer un intérêt à travers le réseau collégial. Il nous est apparu important d'y donner suite par la conception et le développement d'un prototype d'instrument.

Proceeding from a concern which is specific to College Lionel-Groulx, the investigation and development of a means of "Instrument d'accueil autogéré" has created great interest through the network of Colleges of the province. It has appeared to as important to establish it through the conception and the development of a prototype.

## - La problématique (1)

La reconnaissance des acquis extrascolaires au collégial n'est encore qu'au stage d'implantation. De ce fait, elle génère des expérimentations et des actions de recherche relatives à presque tous les éléments qui la caractérisent. Ce n'est pas sans raison que l'on parle amicalement du "vaste chantier de la reconnaissance des acquis".

Cependant, bien que tous les collèges engagés dans l'implantation du dossier ont dû trouver des façons d'accueillir leurs candidats, on ne rapporte, jusqu'à ce jour, aucune remise en question systématique de cette étape déterminante dans cette démarche. Pourtant, la littérature et les échanges sur le sujet laissent entrevoir des situations problématiques liées à la multiplication des intervenants lors de l'accueil, à la situation de dépendance dans laquelle il est possible de maintenir le candidat à ce moment précis de sa démarche et au caractère uniforme de l'instrumentation utilisée malgré la diversité de la clientèle concernée.

Dans une optique de responsabilisation de l'adulte dans ses apprentissages, nous tenterons de répondre à la question suivante. Comment mettre en place des conditions favorables à la prise en charge du candidat au moment de l'accueil dans un processus de reconnaissance des acquis de formation extrascolaires?

- Les étapes du projet

La première étape fut d'entreprendre une recherche exploratoire dans le milieu collégial. A l'aide d'un questionnaire, que nous avons fait parvenir aux collèges impliqués dans le processus de reconnaissance des acquis. Ce questionnaire avait pour objectifs: de connaître les procédures d'accueil, l'accessibilité de l'information en R.A.. Les réponses reçues (58.3%) nous ont permis de constater la préoccupation du milieu face à la responsabilisation de l'adulte dans la démarche de R.A..

L'analyse des résultats laissaient clairement entrevoir des lacunes importantes pouvant devenir la cause de frustrations, d'insécurité, de démotivation et d'interférence dans la prise en charge éducative du candidat tout en nuisant à l'efficience du service d'accueil en reconnaissance des acquis.

En examinant les données recueillies, nous constatons la multiplication des démarches et du questionnement auxquels doit se prêter le candidat avant d'être fixé sur la possibilité de se voir reconnaître des acquis à travers le système scolaire et parfois d'un collège à l'autre. Nous remarquons également le nombre et la diversité des professionnels responsables d'une partie ou de la totalité des activités d'accueil de l'information qui doit être recueillie et donnée. De plus, nous réalisons concrètement le peu de pouvoir laissé à l'étudiant dans son choix de démarche, de procédé de reconnaissance d'acquis, d'approche etc. lié à la rapidité à laquelle doivent être prises les décisions qui s'y rapportent et à l'insuffisance des moyens laissés au candidat pour s'approprier à la fois le langage du milieu collégial et tout le "monde" de la reconnaissance des acquis.

Nous avons, de surcroît, pu cerner l'importance que prend le conseiller (ou autre intervenant) dans le processus d'accueil et le poids des responsabilités décisionnelles et professionnelles qu'il doit assumer dans ce contexte, maintenant l'étudiant dans une situation de dépendance quasi totale par rapport à la personne-ressource qui la reçoit.

Conséquemment nous croyons nécessaire de repenser l'ensemble de la situation de l'accueil et du matériel disponible pour tenter de redonner à chaque acteur en présence, la juste part qui lui revient.

- L'instrument d'auto-apprentissage

Une analyse approfondie de la situation éducative nous conduit à proposer la conception et le développement d'une trousse d'accueil comprenant 4 fascicules indépendants et séquentiels. Chacun d'entre eux présente, de façon analogique, un thème particulier menant graduellement à la sélection d'un voyage: DESTINATION: RECONNAISSANCE DES ACQUIS.

En conclusion nous avons voulu que l'instrument soit plus respectueux de la capacité de l'adulte de se prendre en charge et redonne, à la personne-ressource, l'opportunité d'exercer pleinement et principalement sa fonction-conseil. Ce faisant, l'efficacité et l'efficience d'un service de reconnaissance des acquis appelé à se développer en seront favorablement affectés.

Nous tenons à souligner que, dans ce projet, nous bénéficions de la collaboration financière du FIRAC (Fonds pour l'implantation de la reconnaissance des acquis).

(1) Rapport de recherche, FIRAC, 1989

# PSYCHOLOGICAL FIELD DIFFERENTIATION IN TELECONFERENCING

Shirley Emma Leclair

## ABSTRACT

The purpose of this paper is to investigate the relationship between psychological differentiation and audio teleconferencing within the theoretical framework formulated by Witkin (1949 to 1979). The findings have implications for program planning within Long's (1983) model on the principles of adult continuing education.

## RÉSUMÉ

Le but de cet exposé est d'étudier les relations qui existent entre la différenciation psychologique du champ et l'enseignement à distance par voie téléphonique dans le cadre théorique formulé par Witkin (1949-1979). Les résultats ont des répercussions sur la planification de programmes selon le modèle de Long (1983) portant sur l'éducation permanente des adultes.

## HISTORICAL CHARACTERISTICS: TECHNOLOGICAL ENVIRONMENT

Long's (1983) "Heuristic Educational Program-Planning Model Incorporating Historical and Macro Elements" is a flexible framework from which program planners may be guided to design adult continuing education programs in audio teleconferencing distance education. The historical characteristics of the structural environment of an audio teleconferencing class in distance education has the elements of an industrialized form of education that contains the radical separation of distance education from other traditional forms of education. Historical accounts of previous distance education courses indicate that the teacher travelled from the host institution origin to geographically remote communities in Canada. Courses in audio teleconferencing educational technology have the elements in which the teacher from the host institution, and learner are in different and distant locations that are joined by a dedicated telephone line. This characteristic distinguishes distance education from the traditional face-to-face confrontational lecture (Holmberg, 1983).

The historical characteristics of the audio teleconference class in distance education is sometimes based on the form of the "electronic mass lecture" in which the educative interactive component is cosmetic rather than functional (Cowan, 1984). The structural environment of the "unfocused" electronic mass lecture may separate the teacher and learner, thus encouraging isolated passivity in the learners. The historical characteristics of audio teleconference design has been in competition with traditional face-to-face confrontational classes. Program planners have been motivated by the desire to replicate traditional unfocused mass lecture classroom delivery.

Program planning in adult and continuing education may be creative (Long, 1983) with a focus on effective teaching behaviors that are important in the delivery of audio teleconferencing classes that may act as a model for the design of traditional face-to-face confrontational classes (Shaeffer and Roe, 1985). Audio teleconferencing was a challenge for program planners in the Government of Ontario mass audience perscribed courses offered by Contact North (1987). Host institutions were also challenged to design "High Touch" (Cowan, 1984) creative, flexible, and adaptable "focused interactions".

Program planner research inquiry of historical characteristics of the target population in specific remote areas of Canada may provide a basic foundation for the educative needs and expectations of that particular population (Long, 1983). The findings of this inquiry may suggest that creative program planning considers the element of learner preference for a particular learning style, and this characteristic may have implications for student course completion, and educational achievement in distance education. Creative program planning in audio teleconferencing may provide the voluntary participant within the client system target groups in distance education audio teleconferencing with an opportunity for recurrent education (Employment and Immigration Canada, 1983). Creative flexible program planners consider the maintenance of the woven distinctive mosaic of Canadian culture that may have implications for the educative needs of particular target populations.

Within the program planners' global macrolevel educative needs of target populations in the Canadian mosiac is a decision of awareness and respect of the microlevel social, psychological "northern perspective" that may indicate the educative needs and expectations of Canadian cultural diversities (Canadian Commission for UNESCO, 11/12, 1988). Consideration of these elements in audio teleconferencing educational technology increases motivation to learn, provides informational resource access in all levels of education, and collaborative learning opportunities that includes a variety of learning strategies (Neimi and Gooler, 1987). The principle role of educational technology is to improve the overall efficency of the teaching and learning process in education and training by: increasing the quality of learning, or the learners degree of mastery; and increasing the efficiency of teachers without reducing the quality of learning (Percival and Ellington, 1988).

The philosophical concern for the purpose of adult continuing education, and the people that it serves interacts with macrolevel and microlevel variables (Long, 1983). Microlevel individual teacher and student learning experiences and the recognition of different learning styles is a design situation which the Province of Ontario advocates (Huff, Snider, Stephenson, 1988). Psychological field differentiation is a framework formulated by Witkin (1949-1979) that may have implications for adult continuing distance education program planning.

## ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS: PSYCHOLOGICAL / SOCIAL

Psychological field differentiation describes cognitive style process variables that influence the development of patterns of abilities in: 1) interpersonal competencies [field dependence]; and 2) cognitive restructuring skills [field independence]. These process variables may be regarded as expressing themselves in a persons abilities (Witkin, Goodenough, and Oltman, 1979). Field dependence-independence is a lower order construct of Witkin's framework, while psychological differentiation is the highest order construct. These constructs are described by Witkin and his colleagues as the complexity within the psychological field of the person that depends on the way a system of experience is analyzed, structured, articulated, and integrated.

Research findings indicate that the pathway of the field independent person appears to be more psychologically differentiated. The more psychologically differentiated pathway is a heterogeneous organismic system that displays: a greater segregation of self-nonself; and separate psychological boundaries between the inner core of attributes, feelings, and needs that are identified as the self and the external world. The characteristic mode of functioning in field-independent teachers is the proneness to use inner standards, maintain attitudes, judgments and sentiments without continuous reference to the external social environment. The teaching strategy of a person with an "analytic field approach" is complex, articulated and direct lecture (Witkin, 1973).

In contrast, the strategy of a field dependent teacher consists of the discovery method of teaching that involves interpersonal engagement, involvement in discussion, and use of democratic classroom procedures (Witkin, 1973). This teaching strategy is preferred by the field dependent learner. Research findings indicate that the pathway with a less differentiated psychological homogeneous organismic system displays "a global field approach" with recourse to external social referents that stimulates the development of interpersonal competencies in social experiences. In interpersonal experiences the field dependent person is selective and attentive to the human content of the environment, and this is reflected in their superiority over field independent persons in attending to, and remembering verbal messages that are more social in content.

Research findings indicate that the field dependent learner appears to have difficulty in disembedding and processing the content that is mixed with questions and subsequent answers that are "fused" into the background content of the delivered material. The person who in perception cannot keep an item separate from the surrounding field is also the person who may have difficulty with the kind of problem that requires taking some critical element out of the context in which it is presented and restructuring the problem material so that the element is used in a different way.

Without the disembedding help of the teacher, the field dependent student may be a learner in difficulty who passively accepts the organization of the field or content delivered, leaving 'as is' the stimulus material that is unorganized, and consequently experiences the content in the delivered material as poorly structured and vague. Teachers who have taken the time and effort to train field dependent learners have shown that training enhances specific restructuring skills such as disembedding, and may affect restructuring as a general competence.

Research findings in audio teleconferencing on barriers to clear telecommunication indicate that confusing messages, and information overload may serve as distractions and cause a loss of attention. The content of the information in audio teleconferencing should be structured in a clear, logical pattern to allow for greater participant comprehension (Neumann, 1985; Brown, 1984; Barrett, Thornton & Cabe, 1970). Distance education research statistics indicate that dropout rates are twice those of traditional education (Clark and Verduin, 1989). An explanatory construct for drop-out in distance education may be based on field dependence (Thompson, 1984).

Thompson and Knox (1987) state that further research is needed in order to assess whether field dependent persons are less inclined to participate in distance education programs of instruction (Thompson and Knox, 1987). Field dependence independence appears to be significant with respect to learning style, therefore options should be designed in audio teleconferencing to provide for freedom from time-space constraints, and also to offer differing modes of instruction which best suit the learner's cognitive style (Wedemyer, 1984).

## LIMITATIONS

I have considered that the diagnostic process and findings by the designers of programs for adults may not be generalized to fit all populations of adults, and there are some human interventions which do not fall neatly into models (Chin, 1969). My individualized biases, interpretation and subsequent labelling of a person as psychologically field differentiated may be a stereotyped value judgment on my part. When I label a person as psychologically differentiated I fall into the "error of reification" (Gould, 1981) which for the purpose of this paper is the measure of the abstract concept of psychological differentiation as if it were an actual entity.

## CONCLUSION

In conclusion, it is not my intention to perscribe a competency-based product or recipe for an educational technique, methodological approach, pre-packaged behavioristic theory, or theory of relevance. It is my intention to disseminate knowledge that I have acquired as an adult educator and student, and to challenge program planners in adult continuing distance educational technology: 1) to consider using the model proposed by Long (1983) in the planning and implementation of adult continuing distance education programs; 2) within this model allow for different modes of instruction to meet individual educative learning style needs; 3) provide essential collaboration of students, teachers, and administrators in adult continuing distance education with the means to modify methods of delivery to expand access to learning opportunities for all members of Canadian society.

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# L'ENSEIGNANT ET LA CHOSE MUSEALE

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## RESUME

L'auteur étudie les comptes rendus de visites de musées effectuées durant un cours de la M.Ed. de l'Université de Montréal en vue d'en dégager le portrait de l'enseignant visiteur de musée.

## ABSTRACT

The author analyses museum visits reports written during a M.Ed. course delivered by the Université de Montréal, in order to draw a portrait of the teacher as a museum visitor.

## Introduction

En 1986, le Conseil supérieur de l'Education du Québec adoptait un avis au Ministre sur les nouveaux lieux éducatifs. Il y évoquait "l'importance du réservoir de ressources éducatives disponibles au Québec dans de nombreuses institutions ou organisations... en dehors du système d'enseignement." Dans l'optique même de cet avis, mais en l'appliquant au travail de l'enseignant, la Faculté des sciences de l'éducation de l'Université de Montréal, à ma suggestion, offre depuis 1985 un cours sur le sujet dans le cadre de la maîtrise de perfectionnement (M.Ed.) Education et ressources communautaires. Les musées occupant une place importante parmi les nouveaux lieux éducatifs et dans l'enseignement des diverses disciplines, il était normal qu'ils occupent une bonne place dans ce cours. A cause de cela, le cours, dont je suis le titulaire, est devenu un laboratoire de choix pour une recherche amorcée en 1985 avec ma collègue Colette Dufresne-Tassé, recherche subventionnée d'abord par le Comité d'attribution des fonds internes de recherche de l'Université de Montréal et, depuis lors, par le Fonds pour la Formation de chercheurs et l'Aide à la Recherche (FCAR) et le Conseil de recherches en sciences humaines du Canada (CRSH).

## Description de la recherche

Donné à cinq reprises, le cours a compté cinquante-six participants, hommes et femmes, âgés de trente à cinquante ans, appartenant aux divers secteurs et degrés du système scolaire et enseignant dans les secteurs professionnel et général à peu près dans toutes les disciplines.

Chaque groupe-cours a visité de cinq à sept lieux muséaux de la région montréalaise, vingt lieux ayant été visités en tout. Divers types de visites ont été expérimentés.

Chaque visite faisait l'objet d'un compte rendu écrit de quelques pages. Pour l'ensemble de ces visites, un participant a produit de 30 à 50 pages, de sorte que les cinquante-six participants ont fourni un matériel d'environ 3000 pages.

Je m'emploie actuellement à dégager des comptes rendus des participants une sorte de portrait de l'enseignant visiteur de lieux muséaux. Mon étude comporte sept parties.

La première partie concerne l'approche de la chose muséale. J'y étudie d'abord la façon dont les enseignants croient que le contexte éclaire la chose muséale. J'étudie ensuite la façon dont ils voient le rôle des sens dans l'approche de la chose muséale, comme aussi celui de l'affectivité, de l'imagination, de la mémoire et du questionnement.

Dans la deuxième partie, je rends compte de la façon dont les enseignants, pour les avoir expérimentés, considèrent la visite guidée par un guide professionnel, la visite guidée par les pairs avec la participation d'une personne-ressource, la visite libre avec audio-guide, la visite libre avec personne-ressource, la visite tout à fait libre.

Dans la troisième partie, je m'emploie à décrire les plaisirs comme les déplaisirs des enseignants dans un lieu muséal, ainsi que les causes qu'ils leur assignent, comme aussi à montrer les moyens par lesquels ils arrivent à surmonter leurs déplaisirs.

Dans la quatrième partie, je fais état de l'effort que font les enseignants pour définir la chose muséale et se l'approprier par là, pour se définir comme visiteurs de lieux muséaux, pour prendre conscience de leur évolution à ce titre, et du besoin de préparation à la visite muséale qu'ils éprouvent.

Dans la cinquième partie, j'essaie de donner une idée des découvertes que font les enseignants dans les lieux muséaux, découvertes et apprentissages sur l'apprentissage en général, sur l'apprentissage dans les lieux muséaux, sur la nature, sur l'art, sur l'histoire et sur le spirituel.

Dans la sixième partie, je montre comment les enseignants voient la relation entre les deux institutions que sont l'école et le musée, les possibilités d'éducation et d'enseignement qu'ils attribuent au lieu muséal, la pertinence d'une préparation à la visite d'un de ces lieux.

Dans la septième et dernière partie, je rapporte enfin comment les enseignants qui ont participé au cours l'apprécient. En particulier, j'étudie l'influence que 45 heures de formation universitaire peuvent avoir sur les attitudes des enseignants vis-à-vis les lieux muséaux, sur leur évolution personnelle et professionnelle.

## Résultats de la recherche

Etant donné la masse de résultats obtenus dans cette recherche, il n'est pas possible de les présenter comme tels. J'en signalerai les tendances en rapportant un ensemble de témoignages significatifs. En voici quelques uns en guise d'illustration. Première partie. "Dans un milieu muséal, les objets peuvent être en rapport les uns avec les autres. Ce Christ de Pierre Plante, au Musée des beaux-arts, oui, j'ai vraiment l'impression qu'il va parler, et je reste saisi devant les saints Pierre et Paul, à côté, qui ont l'air de s'enfuir à son aspect." "Je m'inquiète du contexte, oui, mais les sens en éveil. Je suis si déçu quand, dans un lieu muséal, quelque chose bloque tant soit peu la sensation." Deuxième partie. "Les différents types de visite muséale représentent divers types d'apprentissage. Il n'y a donc pas, en soi, un type de visite meilleur qu'un autre. Chacun permet d'exploiter un ou plusieurs aspects des lieux et des objets muséaux, certains convenant mieux à certains comme à certaines personnes." Troisième partie. "Au Château Dufresne, notre regard n'en finit plus de sourire, tant il y a de sujets d'émerveillement." "Il y a sept ans, avec des amis, nous visitions Notre-Dame, Au retour, j'apprenais la mort de ma mère. J'ai préféré de pas entrer." Quatrième partie. "Rue Saint-Denis, j'ai l'impression de visiter un musée vivant qui me présenterait une partie de la réalité d'une époque: le Montréal des années quatre-vingt." "Je ne me sens plus obligé de tout voir. Je prends le temps de regarder ce qui m'intéresse. Je ne vais plus à tel musée, je vais visiter une exposition particulière dans tel musée." Cinquième partie. "J'ai beaucoup appris dans les lieux visités. C'est ailleurs, ensuite, que j'en prends conscience: en lisant le journal, par exemple, ou en faisant une promenade. J'ai développé dans les lieux visités le goût d'en savoir plus, plus et plus, et, surtout peut-être, d'intégrer mes connaissances. Sixième partie. "Dans mon esprit, aucun doute maintenant que les visites de lieux muséaux peuvent constituer une aide pédagogique efficace, car nous apprenons une foule de choses en dehors de l'école. L'intégration de ces choses dans l'enseignement est une façon dynamique d'ouvrir l'école sur le monde. Pouvoir visualiser des concepts aide à la compréhension." Septième partie. "Le cours se termine, mais, pour moi, ce n'est qu'un commencement: une porte s'est entrouverte." "Quelle ouverture sur le monde! Que de grand air!" "Je commence à m'habituer à toutes ces découvertes: j'y ai pris goût."

## Conclusion

La grande conclusion qui, je crois, se dégage de mon étude, j'en ai acquis la conviction à y travailler, c'est que la contribution des enseignants à la pédagogie muséale, tant en vue de la recherche sur l'adulte face à la chose muséale que pour favoriser l'utilisation du musée par les enseignants, me semble de la plus haute importance. C'est plus à écouter l'adulte qu'à s'écouter eux-mêmes que les muséologues, pédagogues et autres, ont des chances d'apprendre à faire du lieu muséal un lieu fréquentable avec profit par l'adulte. C'est plus à écouter l'enseignant qu'à s'écouter eux-mêmes que les muséologues ont des chances d'apprendre à faire du lieu muséal un lieu proche de l'école. Encore faudrait-il, pour cela, donner la parole à l'adulte, à l'enseignant, et autrement qu'en leur administrant des questionnaires indignes de la bonne école parce qu'ils orientent leur discours quand ils ne l'abolissent pas tout à fait.

# DE LA RELATION BESOIN - BENEFICE DANS LE CONTEXTE DE L'éDUCATION MUSéALE

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L'éducation muséale fait nécessairement appel aux notions de besoins du visiteur à son entrée au musée et aux bénéfices qu'il retire à son terme. Ces deux notions sont voisines,les bénéfices découlant directement d'une action plutôt que de la projection de l'être dans le futur comme le besoin.

Museal education remind necessarely the notion of needs and benefits of museum visitor's. Benefits are issued from an action rather then the projection of the person in the future.

La plupart des muséologues (Deloche,1983; Borun et Miller,1980; Graburn et al,1977; ICOM,1975; Lord,Sears,Heath et al,1983; Zetterberg,1970) croient que le musée a pour fonction de provoquer des impressions chez le visiteur. Une fois stimulé, celui-ci réfléchit sur lui de même que sur le monde qui l'entoure et acquiert des connaissances nouvelles à la suite des réactions que les objets déclenchent chez lui.

Dans le contexte muséal, la relation besoin - bénéfice fait obligatoirement appel à l'éducation au musée qui servira de toile de fond à la présente réflexion. Suivront la mise au point des concepts de besoin et de bénéfice ainsi que leur interrelation mutuelle.

## Le musée,lieu d'éducation

La fonction éducative s'est imposée progressivement au musée. A ses débuts, il était simplement un endroit où le visiteur allait dans ses moments de loisir avec l'espoir d'y trouver un plaisir esthétique,d'y voir des exhibits rares ou d'une grande valeur monétaire (Zetterberg,1970). Un peu plus tard, on en est venu à leur interprétation. Désormais,les objets sont conservés afin de les mettre à la portée du public (Kean,1981).

Même si l'intérêt pour la diffusion du patrimoine et de la culture est récent, les musées ont développé des stratégies éducatives et des activités à l'intention de ses diverses clientèles (MAC,1979). Tout comme l'école,le musée ne se livre pas seulement au traitement du savoir cognitif, mais développe également des aptitudes,suscite des attitudes et inculque certaines valeurs. Il le fait en livrant une conception de l'homme et de son univers,de manière compréhensible et cohérente pour le public dans l'accomplissement de sa tâche sociale (Hansen,Tage,Hoger,1984). On pourrait même affirmer qu'il offre un milieu de formation qui correspond mieux aux goûts et aux préoccupations d'une clientèle qu'on s'efforce d'y attirer.

La visibilité de la fonction éducative et les nouvelles orientations de l'Etat nous amènent à réfléchir sur les besoins et les bénéfices du visiteur de musée, en regard de l'aspect ludique de cette activité et des apprentissages qu'il peut y acquérir.

## Les besoins du visiteur

Plusieurs auteurs en éducation ont écrit sur la notion de besoin dont quelques uns seront présentés ici. Barbier et Lesne (1977) décrivent le besoin comme le sentiment d'une exigence ou d'une nécessité qui a une existence objective. Même quand on le qualifie de manifeste ou d'exprimé, il demeure une variable soupçonnée, inférée, hypothétique.

Gardner (1975), Stern (1970) et Murray(1938) ajoutent que le besoin dépend de la personnalité de l'individu et des pressions de l'environnement.

St-Arnaud (1974), pour sa part, conçoit le besoin comme partie de la motivation à la réalisation de soi. Dans son modèle descriptif de la personne humaine, cet auteur va jusqu'à identifier trois catégories de besoins: les besoins fondamentaux, les besoins structurants et les besoins situationnels.

Ce n'est évidemment pas pour satisfaire un besoin fondamental de survie que le visiteur entre au musée.

Le besoin structurant,deuxième catégorie décrite par St-Arnaud, est plus intéressante pour l'étude du fonctionnement du visiteur de musée. Le besoin structurant se caractérisent 1. par son développement progressif et lent lors des interactions entre l'individu et son environnement; 2. par l'impossibilité de l'observer; 3. par les diverses façons de le satisfaire:importance variable selon les individus, polyvalence et réponse à plusieurs besoins fondamentaux selon diverses modalités (St-Arnaud,1974,p.59).

La structure qui en émerge, amène la personne à développer dans son champ perceptuel un contexte référant au besoin situationnel, troisième catégorie identifiée par St-Arnaud (1974).Il renseigne sur la structure motivationnelle de l'individu. Même s'il apparaît en troisième lieu, il n'en constitue pas moins le point de départ vers la satisfaction des besoins fondamentaux et structurants. Il participe soit à la reconstitution de la structure de motivation, soit à la manifestation de la tendance à s'actualiser ou à l'expression de l'affectivité.

Les besoins situationnels,structurants et fondamentaux diffèrent par leur essence tout en étant interreliés. Le musée procure au visiteur un lieu provoquant toute une série d'actions et de réactions dont la finalité n'appartient qu'au visiteur.

L'expérience muséale peut stimuler l'émergence d'un besoin situationnel, car elle offre des informations qui satisfont la curiosité. Le visiteur en tire profit selon les comportements qu'il a antérieurement développé en comblant des besoins structurants comme celui de comprendre,d'apprendre et, finalement,de concourir à la satisfaction de besoins fondamentaux tels que l'actualisation de soi.

## Les bénéfices du visiteur

C'est dans le domaine de l'économie et de l'administration que la notion de bénéfice a été le mieux décrite (Bernard et al 1975; Albert(1982) et Du Montcel 1972). Pour le visiteur, le bénéfice représente ce qui reste,une fois les efforts assumés,l'ensemble des gains étant supérieur à l'ensemble des efforts. Peu d'écrits en traitent spécifiquement.Seuls Harrison (1960) et Lewis (1980) emploient le terme bénéfice et posent directement la question du profit retiré par un visiteur selon le temps passé devant des exhibits. Cependant, leur propos sont plutôt vagues, car ils parlent tantôt de bénéfice et tantôt de besoin. Pour Harrison (1960) le principal bénéfice réside dans l'élargissement de la perception et la stimulation de l'imagination ou de la sensibilité. De son côté, Lewis (1980) pose l'hypothèse que le bénéfice doit être l'objet de la réflexion des muséologues.

Les bénéfices obtenus contribuent à motiver la personne pour de futures visites. Ils varieront selon l'origine de la motivation et provoqueront des besoins en créant la nécessité de combler de nouveaux désirs. Ce que le visiteur retire du musée est tout à la fois si évident et si obscur que peu de chercheurs s'en sont préoccupés.

En guise de synthèse, disons que le bénéfice d'une visite au musée est un élément résiduel positif et dynamique provenant d'un comportement physique,intellectuel,affectif ou social,réceptif ou actif,qui engendre du plaisir ou des émotions positives. Ce plaisir et ces émotions, d'intensité différente pour chacun concourent au bien-être de l'individu,à son enrichissement sur le plan cognitif,affectif ou social et lui procurent le sentiment de s'être diverti.

## L'interrelation besoin - bénéfice

Tout comme le besoin, le bénéfice est marqué par les expériences antérieures de l'individu de même que par ses expériences intellectuelles et affectives. De la même manière,il conditionne les expériences futures. Mais le bénéfice est relié au terme de la réalisation de l'expérience, alors que le besoin apparaît en son début et fait partie de ce qui en est espéré. Le bénéfice résulte d'une activité concrète, mais il s'en dégage davantage que le besoin. Il est l'aspect positif du résultatet des influences subies. A l'encontre du besoin,il est riche de l'expérience d'où il est issu puisqu'il arrive à la fin du continuum motivationnel,dans le cadre d'une situation vécue. Il fait suite à un état réceptif ou à une action participative. Il est une réalité exprimée. Il est l'élément de plus que la personne ajoute à son bagage antérieur. Habituellement, le bénéfice devient présent à la conscience par l'effet d'un élément déclencheur. Sans ce dernier,il peut demeurer inconnu. Besoin et bénéfice sont donc,de des notions distinctes,mais reliées entre elles.

Comment ce lien s'exprime-t-il au musée, pour le visiteur? Ses motivations l'entraînant au musée correspondent habituellement à ce qu'il espère y trouver. S'il s'y arrête par hasard , il aura des besoins différents de celui qui s'y rend expressément. Celui qui entretient un intérêt particulier pour une expositionaura aussi des besoins spécifiques.

L'approche utilisée dans le parcours des galeries sera en fonction de ce que le visiteur désire préalablement y trouver. Il en découlera des bénéfices variés. Ceux-ci peuvent être en relation directe avec les besoins du visiteur. A l'occasion,ils sont aussi d'une toute autre nature que les aspirations premières. Par exemple, celui qui entre dans un musée historique, pour connaître les origines d'une ville, verra son besoin comblé et repartira avec le bénéfice d'avoir acquis de nouvelles connaissances. Toutefois, il se pourrait qu'il en sorte en n'ayant rien appris de plus, mais en ayant ressenti le plaisir de constater l'étendu de son savoir et étant satisfait d'avoir passé un moment agréable. Le bénéfice sera alors différent du besoin situationnel.

On peut penser que la différence entre besoins et bénéfices résulterait de facteurs individuels,de conditions de visite,de rencontres faites ou simplement du temps dont on dispose pour effectuer sa visite. Les initiés comme les non initiés débutent parfois une visite avec le même besoin, mais peuvent la terminer en retirant des bénéfices variés comme la satisfaction d'avoir découvert une nouvelle présentation des objetss, de l'information ou l'utilisation de techniques améliorées pour la conservation des pièces. Il arrive aussi que les bénéfices soient de même nature que les besoins du visiteur, mais pas nécessairement.

L'environnement propre au musée fait émerger certains besoins situationnels et les choix qu'il fait au cours de sa visite proviennent d'habitudes personnelles qui originent des besoins structurants.

Dans un autre ordre d'idées,la visite de musée entraîne des bénéfices généraux comme un sentiment de bien-être, une sensation de plaisir ou encore des bénéfices actifs provenant de la recherche provoquée ou de la participation aux activités proposées. Un autre type de bénéfice se qualifie de passif parce qu'il ne nécessite pas d'effort intellectuel ou ne découle pas d'un bénéfice actif.Il apparaît que les notions bénéfices et de besoins sont voisines mais reliés que jusqu'à un certain point. Les bénéfices découlent directement d'une action plutôt que de la projection de l'être dans le futur et ils constituent de véritables acquis pour la personne.

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## RESUME

L'approche andragogique reconnaît l'adulte comme agent principal de sa formation et de son évaluation. La complexité des situations cliniques fait appel à une évaluation plus subjective telle l'auto-évaluation. Ces notions de subjectivité et de participation nous font poser la question suivante: l'auto-évaluation est-elle une évaluation?

## ABSTRACT

The andragogical approach recognizes the adult as the main agent of his formation and evaluation. Clinical situations, because of their complexity call upon a more subjective assessment as self-appraisal. These notions of subjectivity and participation lead up to the following question: is self-appraisal an evaluation?

## Introduction

L'auto-évaluation est probablement, pour plusieurs, un terme peu familier, toutefois la réalité correspondant à ce concept est plus connue. Nous avons appris depuis longtemps à faire l'évaluation de notre comportement rationnel, de notre vie émotive, de notre rendement et cela, depuis que "nous avons souvenance de ce que nous sommes".

L'auto-évaluation est expérimentée individuellement chez tout individu qui s'observe. Cette façon de procéder prend de plus en plus de place dans l'évaluation en milieu académique, en milieu de travail, dans l'évaluation de programmes de formation ou dans l'évaluation des besoins.

L'approche d'auto-évaluation, lorsqu'appliquée en milieu académique ou en milieu de travail, est parfois refusée, parfois acceptée d'emblée sans remise en question des coutumes ou encore, accueillie et menée de façon concomitante avec des approches traditionnelles d'allo-évaluation. L'approche risque alors d'être mise en place sans préparation suffisante et servir aux mêmes fins que l'évaluation "sommative".

Il est aussi possible que l'approche d'auto-évaluation s'inscrive dans un contexte d'évaluation "formative", qu'elle fasse appel à la responsabilité de l'évalué vis-à-vis de sa formation et qu'elle suscite chez lui une remise en question. La place accordée à l'évalué dans un processus d'évaluation peut modifier l'attitude de ce dernier en le faisant passer de la passivité la plus totale à des degrés divers de participation, de collaboration, voire même d'autonomie. Cette façon de concevoir l'évaluation s'applique autant aux apprentissages académiques qu'aux activités de formation dans le milieu de travail.

## Problématique

Les professionnels de la santé ont à assurer une mise à jour de leurs connaissances et de leurs habiletés pour s'adapter à l'évolution de la science, aux changements technologiques et à diverses exigences professionnelles; la formation, avec ses modalités d'évaluation, devient un impératif et l'auto-évaluation suscite un grand intérêt. Deux groupes de professionnels de la santé au Québec témoignent de cet intérêt. Le premier groupe, constitué d'infirmières et d'infirmiers, est identifié à l'Ordre des infirmières et infirmiers du Québec; cette corporation remet en question les politiques de formation de ses membres (O.I.Q., 1983) et elle inscrit cette réforme dans le processus de mutation que traverse le système de santé québécois. Ces orientations qui concernent la formation et l'un de ses aspects, l'évaluation, suscite des modifications; une approche qui tient davantage compte de la participation des évalués est mise de l'avant et des instruments d'auto-évaluation sont proposés aux infirmières. Le second groupe de professionnels est identifié aux physiothérapeutes; ces derniers sont invités à évaluer la pratique de leurs propres activités dans les établissements de santé, dans le but d'identifier des besoins de formation continue et d'amorcer la révision d'un curriculum en milieu universitaire (Aston-McCrimmon, 1986).

Ces innovations suscitent des réactions: on ne peut se fier à l'auto-évaluation, les évalués se surestiment, les évaluateurs déclinent une partie de leurs responsabilités. Les évalués, pour leur part, font des commentaires qui sont tantôt favorables, tantôt défavorables.

La participation et la subjectivité de l'évalué sont des aspects non couverts par l'évaluation traditionnelle. Cette participation conduit à la réflexion: elle entraîne un temps d'arrêt, permet à l'évalué d'identifier ses forces et ses faiblesses et suscite une prise en charge de sa formation.

Tousignant (1982) décrit l'auto-évaluation comme une modalité originale d'évaluation formative où l'individu participe à son évaluation. Il souligne qu'un manque d'objectivité et une évaluation trop généreuse sont prévisibles, malgré une grande intégrité de l'évalué. Ces objections tombent en partie si l'on se place dans un contexte d'évaluation formative et "critériée". La pratique de l'auto-évaluation, toujours selon Tousignant, revalorise l'évalué et lui fait prendre conscience de sa responsabilité vis-à-vis sa propre formation et, en général, permet à l'évalué d'entretenir un dialogue fructueux avec l'évaluateur.

Le point de vue de Tousignant s'apparente à celui de Ramsborg (1983), éducateur du domaine de la santé oeuvrant en milieu clinique; ce dernier rapporte que les individus qui s'auto-évaluent sont probablement plus enclins à s'auto-déterminer, plus motivés et plus critiques face à leur travail.

Sullivan (1981), une éducatrice d'adultes, brosse un tableau de la situation de plusieurs professionnels de la santé qui ont à assurer une mise à jour de leurs connaissances pour parer à des lacunes personnelles et parfaire leur formation. Se référant à des principes andragogiques, elle propose l'auto-évaluation comme approche non menaçante, confidentielle et assurant à l'évalué le temps requis pour procéder à son évaluation; elle suggère l'usage de critères pré-établis par la profession et propose que la rétro-action soit assurée par des mécanismes élaborés par les associations professionnelles.

## Préoccupations actuelles

Des études récentes révèlent les préoccupations théoriques, soulignent l'importance des qualités psychométriques des outils utilisés et celles des variables personnelles et organisationnelles.

Quelques études d'auto-évaluations menées auprès de praticiens illustrent ces préoccupations:

- l'étude de Knox (1982) évalue le rendement d'infirmières oeuvrant en santé communautaire; l'auteur tente de vérifier s'il y a une relation entre l'usage d'un outil d'auto-évaluation et la formulation d 'objectifs pour améliorer la qualité du travail;
- l'étude de Froberg (1984) porte sur l'évaluation des connaissances acquises par des participants qui assistent à un atelier de relation d'aide; l'auteur étudie la validité des auto-évaluations et investigue la consistance de celles-ci à partir des conditions de mesure et du moment de l'administration de l'auto-évaluation;
- l'étude de Milgrom et al. (1978) évalue la qualité de certains traitements exécutés par des dentistes en comparant les résultats d'auto-évaluations à ceux d'évaluation faites par des pairs;
- l'étude de Curry et al. (1986) porte sur la validité des auto-évaluations; les auteurs mesurent les effets d'un programme de formation continue offert à des médecins sur la façon de prescrire un traitement. Curry et al. cherchent à établir des liens entre les intentions auto-rapportées à changer des comportements et les comportements avant et après la période de formation.

D'autres études sont réalisées en milieu académique, ce sont:

- l'étude d'Abbott et al. (1988) menée à une école d'infirmière; les auteures investiguent les perceptions que les évaluées et les évaluatrices ont de l'auto-évaluation et de la valeur de celle-ci dans le processus éducatif;
- l'étude de Calhoun et al. (1988) propose à des étudiants en médecine une approche où ces derniers sont invités à s'évaluer sur la façon de procéder à un examen physique d'un client, à partir d'un enregistrement vidéo de l'activité. Deux pairs et un expert évaluent la même activité avec la même liste de contrôle;
- l'étude de Kolm et al. (1987) compare l'auto-évaluation de 13 activités cliniques exécutées par les étudiants en médecine, avec l'évaluation des superviseurs;
- l'étude de Linn et al. (1982) décrit la relation entre le point de vue d'étudiants en médecine sur l'importance d'une tâche et l'acquisition de l'habileté correspondante; les étudiants s'auto-évaluent avant et après une expérience d'internat.

Certaines de ces études s'attardent, soit aux qualités psychométriques, au moment où l'on procède à l'auto-évaluation et aux directives qui l'accompagnent. D'autres comparent les résultats d'auto-évaluations à ceux d'évaluateurs, et les résultats n'affichent pas de valeurs statistiques significatives entre les 2 types d'évaluation; par ailleurs il semble que ces évaluations se font sur des bases différentes et ces désaccords peuvent venir d'un manque de fidélité des auto-évaluations mais ils peuvent également venir du fait qu'"auto" et "allo" évaluation mesurent des réalités différentes. En dernier lieu, une étude précise la relation entre l'auto-évaluation et l'engagement de l'évalué dans un processus de changement ou encore une autre souligne que des comportements rapportés dans les auto-évaluations comme non changés sont en transformation et que l'environnement ou la formation ont un impact sur le processus de changement.

Les déficiences des résultats des auto-évaluations en fonction des actes quotidiens, les liens entre l'auto-évaluation et le processus d'apprentissage, l'importance du contexte sur les activités à évaluer invitent à un recadrage de l'auto-évaluation dans une approche d'évaluation formative [et à un changement de paradigme pour traiter des qualités psychométriques de l'auto-évaluation (aspect non traité ici)].

A partir de cet état de fait, peut-on dire que l'auto-évaluation est une évaluation?

Le point de vue d'auteurs qui se sont intéressés à l'évaluation et à l'auto-évaluation nous éclaire sur la façon de concevoir l'auto-évaluation comme approche d'évaluation formative. Ces auteurs sont des éducateurs, des professionnels de la santé ou des andragogues.

## Notion d'évaluation

La façon de concevoir l'évaluation semble avoir progressé depuis les 20 dernières années et les écrits récents s'éloignent d'une définition traditionnelle axée sur les résultats, au profit d'une conception de l'évaluation qui se rapproche du processus de formation et du contexte ou celles-ci prennent place.

L'évaluation est définie par Stufflebeam et al. (1980:48) comme "un processus par lequel on délimite , obtient et fournit des informations utiles permettant de juger des décisions possibles". Il est important pour ces auteurs, de concevoir le processus d'évaluation comme continu plutôt que terminal, puisque l'éducation se produit comme résultat de l'agir habituel; pour eux, l'évaluation se préoccupe non seulement des résultats mais aussi des données de l'expérience habituellement qualifiées de non mesurables; pour eux, l'évaluation, enfin, apporte l'information utile, pour éclairer une prise de décision. Ces auteurs rappellent aussi, qu'il faut pour cela connaître les décisions possibles, les critères à appliquer et ces deux ensembles de spécifications sont le résultat d'une interaction entre l'évaluateur et l'évalué.

Dominicé (1981) décrit l'évaluation dans une perspective pédagogique et pour cela, elle doit se situer à l'intérieur d'activités éducatives où l'accent est mis sur la formation (évaluation formative). L'évaluation, selon l'auteur, lorsqu'elle mesure le degré de réalisation des objectifs d'un programme ou qu'elle interroge le cheminement des élèves pour atteindre ces objectifs, fournit une information qui conduit à des décisions. L'évaluation formative est donc pour Dominicé un moyen de réorienter l'action éducative, de modifier la pédagogie de cette action et ainsi elle ouvre la voie à la régulation de la formation.

Un éducateur québécois, Scalon (1988), rappelle que le terme évaluation garde un caractère équivoque et que de nos jours, l'usage le plus répandu semble être celui de l'énonciation d'un jugement; l'avènement du paradigme "mesure-évaluation-décision" est rappelé par l'auteur dans ces termes: "la visée principale de toute démarche évaluative est une prise de décision et non plus un seul jugement" (Scalon, 1988:17). Ces réflexions amènent Scalon à préciser la pratique de l'évaluation formative; selon l'auteur, on ne saurait se contenter d'exprimer une opinion, une impression globale, mais plutôt opter pour des jugements nuancés, circonstanciés ou des jugements qui s'appuient sur une interprétation critériée et axés vers une prise de décision. Cette dernière est bien souvent dictée, selon l'auteur, par un contexte où se situe la relation évaluateur-évalué, laquelle peut assurer à l'individu une progression dans sa formation.

Benner et al. (1978) discutent de l'évaluation en milieu clinique et ils s'attardent au contexte ou étudiants et praticiens, soumis à une évaluation, vaquent à leurs activités quotidiennes dans les unités de soins; pour ces auteurs, l'évaluation peut influencer positivement ou négativement l'approche humaine des cliniciens et pour cette raison, les auteurs valorisent l'usage de méthodes interactives, lesquelles offrent une rétroaction immédiate et réaliste. Même si ces méthodes sont reconnues comme moins fidèles, disent Benner et al., les possibilités qu'elles offrent pour l'évaluation de certaines habiletés et la mise en valeur des interactions efficaces du clinicien, justifient leur usage de plus en plus croissant.

Les andragogues décrivent l'évaluation dans une perspective d'apprentissage propre à l'adulte; l'un d'eux, Knowles (1970) commente l'évaluation des apprentissages chez l'adulte et il identifie une incongruence entre les pratiques traditionnelles d'évaluation et la notion de "concept de soi" et "d'auto-directivité" propre à l'adulte; selon l'auteur l'adulte en situation d'évaluation est habité par un sentiment d'infantilisation, compte tenu qu'il est jugé par un autre adulte. Un processus d'évaluation en andragogie, selon Knowles, invite l'évaluateur à consacrer son énergie à aider l'adulte à mettre en évidence les progrès réalisés, en fonction des buts poursuivis; l'adulte qui vit une telle évaluation poursuit ses activités éducatives avec plus d'enthousiasme et voit l'évaluation comme constructive pour lui.

Un deuxième andragogue, Kidd (1973), se réfère à la position d'un comité national d'éducation des adultes et il rappelle que le but premier de l'évaluation en éducation des adultes, est d'arriver à découvrir comment le changement et la croissance prennent place suite à une expérience éducative. Selon Kidd (1973:284) l'évaluation est plus qu'une mesure de changement de comportement, elle est aussi plus qu'un test ou un examen final; si elle est plus, elle peut aussi être un examen d'entrée qui sert de base pour mesurer la croissance.

## Notion d'auto-évaluation

La participation des évalués au processus d'évaluation ouvre la voie à l'auto-évaluation. L'auto-évaluation, selon Scalon (1988) est une habileté à développer et, à la rigueur être vue comme objectif de formation à poursuivre; Scalon se réfère à Leselbaum (1982) pour décrire cet apprentissage: procédures qui amènent l'évalué à poser un jugement sur son travail, en fonction de critères établis et en relation à des objectifs à atteindre. L'auto-évaluation, selon Scalon, offre à l'individu la possibilité de se prendre en charge et d'assumer la régulation de ses apprentissages (auto-régulation). Un andragogue, Kidd (1973), fait appel aux propos de Carl Rogers (1951) pour situer l'auto-évaluation: cette modalité d'évaluation peut parer à la violence faite aux apprentissages chez l'adulte par l'évaluation externe, puisque c'est la croissance personnelle qui est compromise, voire retardée, plutôt que mise en valeur par les évaluateurs de dire Rogers. La pratique d'auto-évaluation, selon Kidd, dispose l'adulte à améliorer sa capacité à s'auto-évaluer, et cette habileté est probablement source de motivation et invite à la poursuite d'activités de formation à partir des forces et faiblesses identifiées. Par ailleurs, le modèle de participation des adultes à des activités éducatives, mis au point par l'andragogue Cross (1981) identifie comme variable de départ à la participation, l'auto-évaluation, c'est-à-dire la perception qu'un individu entretient à propos de ses possibilités d'apprentissage.

L'aide à offrir aux adultes en situation d'apprentissage a fait l'objet d'une réflexion chez Knox (1986) et cet éducateur d'adulte identifie, comme ses prédécesseurs, l'approche d'auto-évaluation pour rendre l'apprenant actif, indépendant, créateur et confiant dans les activités éventuelles d'apprentissages auto-dirigées.

Après avoir cerné, le point de vue de quelques auteurs, sur ce qu'est l'évaluation formative et l'auto-évaluation, une synthèse des deux approches met en évidence de concepts communs et montre en quoi l'auto-évaluation est une évaluation.

## Points communs à l'évaluation formative et à l'auto-évaluation

| | **Evaluation** | **Auto-évaluation** |
|---|---|---|
| **1.** | Collecte d'information: | |
| | - contexte | - approche individuelle flexible, autonome |
| | - observation | - auto-observation |
| | - réponses | |
| | - comportements | |
| **2.** | Comparaison des informations avec cadre de référence: | |
| | - normes | - liste de comportements |
| | - critères | - liste de critères |
| | | - instrument d'auto-évaluation |
| **3.** | Jugement: | |
| | - progression de l'évalué | - identification des forces et faiblesses |
| | - point sur le cheminement | - auto-critique du comportement |
| | - maîtrise des objectifs d'apprentissage | - restructuration de l'action-intervention |
| **4.** | Décision-action: | |
| | - interaction évaluateur/évalué | - interaction évaluateur/évalué (rétro-action) |
| | - identification des correctifs | - prospective action/intervention (auto-régulation) |
| | - actions à poser | - responsabilité vs actions à poser (prise en charge) |

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# PERSONAL/PROFESSIONAL POLITICS IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF ADULT EDUCATION KNOWLEDGE IN NORTH AMERICA

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Les chercheurs ont identifié certaines variables accompagnant la politique personnelle et professionnelle qui semblent influer sur le développement des connaissances. Cette étude montre que des variables similaires, telles qu'une élite identifiée et les chances d'obtenir une récompense, se trouvent dans la formation continue en Amérique du nord.

Scholars have identified some variables associated with personal/professional politics that appear to influence knowledge development. This study indicates that similar variables such as an identified elite and opportunities for reward are found in North American adult education.

This paper focuses on internal or personal/professional politics in adult education research as opposed to external politics. The topic almost has been completely ignored in discussions of adult education literature. Nevertheless,it does appear to have significance as research politics influence the development of knowledge. Comment on possible political and social impacts upon research in adult education is limited (Brookfield 1983; Courtnay 1986; Long, 1983a, 1986 and 1987; Merriam 1986 and Pipke, 1984).

Therefore, the objective of this paper is to address the possibility of personal/professional politics in adult education research. It is hypothesized that if the conditions for politics in research as found in other fields exist in adult education then it is likely that politics also exist in adult education research. The hypothesis is examined by (1) providing a working definition of politics, (2) discussing politics in research as a scientific activity, (3) identifying some adult education activities that may be influenced by politics and the rewards involved, (4) providing some circumstantial evidence of politics in adult education research.

## WORKING DEFINITION

Politics is defined as the exertion and use of power to further increase or maintain power for selected objectives. Personal/professional politics is defined as the direct and indirect exertion of power to control or influence research activity in support of an approved ideology or objective.

## POLITICS IN RESEARCH

Two contrasting pictures of research are found in contemporary literature. The dominant perception of detached, objective

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scientists toiling away expecting no reward for their efforts other than the satisfaction derived from explaining heretofore puzzling conditions is described by Blissett (1972) and Courtnay (1986). This is the democratic view of science where investigators are "...provided with the structure and incentives necessary to encourage independent thinking and creative response to problem solving" (Courtnay, 1986, p. 161). Yet, another view defines research and science as an oligarchically dominated enterprise replete with gatekeepers, codes of socialization, and a powerful system of reward and punishment (Blissett, 1972; Oldroyd, 1986).

If social interactions are influenced by the social system then it is possible that the social system also legitimates certain ideas and seeks to exclude others. According to Oldroyd (1986), questions of power are at play in the act of legitimation. Hence politics, influence the legitimacy of ideas. In many instances "what counts as scientific knowledge is---what the scientific community sanctions through its various journals, reviews, textbooks, and so on" (Oldroyd, 1986, p. 347). Yet, the description of refereed journals is not always salutary - Sachs' (1988) comments on refereed journals as follows:

> ...at their worst, such journals can be like an old boys' clique, taking care of each other's careers in a narrowly defined speciality, and...encouraging insiders' careers while knowingly blocking those of outsiders.(page B2)

Space prevents an explication of the findings and positions of Blissett (1972), Crane (1972), Oldroyd (1986), and Sachs (1988). Nevertheless, they agree on some important points. They associate politics in research to (a) the existence of the means for reward and punishment, (b) the likelihood that the rewards may be significant. Furthermore, conditions that are identified with personal/professional politics include: (a) identifiable elite subgroups; (b) citation patterns; (c) communication patterns, (d) acceptance based on institutional affiliation and relationship to other reputational leaders.

## POLITICS IN ADULT EDUCATION RESEARCH

The possibilities that politics may underlie some of the research and publication decisions in adult education are noted by Brookfield (1983), Long (1986), and Merriam (1986). It is pointed out that no direct charges of political pressures are clearly incontestable in the examples and illustrations that follow. The main objective in this section is to point out that the instruments of political behavior are present: some individuals or groups may have power to reward and punish.

It would be instructive to look first at some of the places where politics might affect adult education research. Following (Oldroyd, 1986) the first places to which we might look are obvious: (a) publications; (b) research conferences; (c) consulting arrangements; and (d) employment and (e) promotion practices (Oldroyd, 1986).

### Publications

Politics could enter into the publications area in a number of ways. Let us take AEQ as an example. The procedure by which the editor of the journal is selected includes (a) a call for proposals; (b) review of the proposals and (c) awarding the journal to an institution. A number of potential politically sensitive decisions are made. The first one is the selection of the review committee usually by individuals who have conducted election campaigns to obtain a position of power and recognition. The second emerges from the application criteria developed by the committee. The third involves the ways by which criteria are examined and interpreted. The fourth concerns the eventual voting and decision process that eventuates in a nominee. The political potential is not exhausted when the editor is selected. It continues through the selection of consulting editors, decisions made by the editor and eventual publication or rejection. While it should be obvious that the editors of the publications are engaged in a difficult and demanding task, it is equally apparent that it is a prestigious position. Few other professional roles will provide such broad, instant and continuing recognition as editor of an important journal. Recognition of this sort has several kinds of potential currency.

Consulting editors also may have their own ideological and political positions to support. In the name of rigor generality and theoretical power they can systematically reject manuscripts that represent views with which they differ while overlooking flaws in procedures, limited generality and theoretical inconsistencies as long as the thrust of the manuscript converges with their ideological position or they recognize the work of a friend.

### Conferences

The above scenario concerning consulting editors could also apply to reviewers of papers to be presented at conferences. Similar incentives exist for scholars to present papers as exists for publishing journal articles. Also the same possibilities for politics to enter into the paper selection process that may be at work in publication selection also exists. Pipke's (1984) work cited earlier provides some evidence here, but once again proof is not required to speculate about possibilities.

### Consulting

Consulting opportunities, limited as they are for adult educators, is perhaps the most direct reward for ideological, theoretical and research convergence. The consulting relationship is, however, much more private than the publication/conference arena. Nevertheless, it is potentially a powerful tool for rewarding convergence.

### Employment and Promotion

Perhaps scholars are never more vulnerable to pressure than when they are seeking employment or hoping for promotion. In both situations scholars' achievements are examined and reviewed and thereby they are rewarded or punished.

## SOME CIRCUMSTANTIAL EVIDENCE

Yet, the evidential requirements for determining the possible existence of politics in adult education research have not been met. There is some suggestive circumstantial evidence, however. If the conditions described by Crane (1972) Blissett (1972) and Oldroyd (1986) accurately reveal the existence of research in politics, if the information discussed below is valid, and if the interpretation is correct there is some tenuous evidence that inquiry in adult education as a field of study is similar to inquiry in the other fields.

Circumstantial evidence of politics in adult education research is of two kinds: empirical and anecdotal. Comments here are limited to empirical data. Following Crane's (1972) description of the invisible college and Blissett's (1972) and Oldroyd's (1986) observations it is concluded that there is evidence in support of politics in adult education research if one or more of the following conditions exist: (a) the existence of identifiable elite subgroups; (b) citation patterns; (c) communication patterns; (d) acceptance based on institutional affiliation and relationship to other reputational leaders.

### Existence of Elite Subgroups

Analysis of seven sources (Bachus, 1981; Boshier and Pickard 1979; Learning Connection, 1982; Long and Agyekum 1974, Long, 1977, Long 1983a and Okum and Priston 1979), which provide a list of names of individuals and university programs, suggests that adult educators have devised some way of identifying elites. These sources yield four lists of individuals and six lists of universities. By comparing the various sources we note that some individuals and institutions appear on more than one list. Eleven professors are found on two or more of the four identified lists of individuals and nine of the universities are included in three or more of the six lists dealing with universities. Hence there is some evidence of the existence of reputational leaders: professors and universities. These seem to constitute Crane's invisible college.

### Citation Patterns

A second characteristic of Crane's (1972) invisible college is a systematic citation pattern. She suggested people within an elite group would tend to cite other members of the group and that the citation direction may be associated with status. An earlier study (Long, 1983a) provides evidence that both of these phenomena exist in North American adult education. Analysis of Boshier and Pickard's (1979) study reveals an intra-citation pattern among the frequently cited authors and suggest a three tiered social-political configuration among them.

The direction of citation behavior is important to the thesis of prestige and influence. Analysis of the citations in Adult Education reported by Boshier and Pickard indicate that adult educators are similar to researchers in other fields as described by Crane (1972).

### Communication Patterns

No study of communication patterns among the identified professors has been identified. Yet, there is reason to believe that some kind of formal or informal system exists. One reason for this assertion is found in the institutional linkage noted in the discussion of elite groups. All eleven of the professors identified in at least two of the sources had professional or student affiliations with at least one of the selected universities; six of the professors' careers included at least two of the reputational universities. Also a study of publication activities of professors revealed the most frequently published professors were associated with a small number of universities. The possibility of close communication linkages is further implied by AERC data (Long, 1983b). An analysis of the AERC in ten years, 1971-1980, revealed that of 22 members of the Steering Committee, 10 were associated with 4 universities and only two 7 universities were represented; one-half were from locations along the Canadian/U.S. border, 35 percent of the papers were presented by faculty and students from 7 universities.

### Acceptance

Professional acceptance based on affiliation and relationship with other reputational leaders is difficult to assess. However, ten of the eleven professors on the two lists had some kind of student-faculty relationship. The eleventh completed his education outside of North America. One professor had served as a professor of five of the other professors. Each of two professors had been professor of one other member of the list. Eight of the professors were not mentors or professors of any other member of the group. Another way of expressing this finding is to observe that in one instance we discover three generations of influence and in two cases two generations and in eight cases the professors represented the third generation only.

## SUMMARY

This paper was designed to examine and discuss the possibility that the selection of a research topic and choice of research method are not always apolitical.

The evidence presented here that adult education research is politically sensitive is primarily circumstantial. There are a variety of alternate explanations available to explain some of the behaviors observed. Alternate explanations, such as incompetence of consulting editors or paper selection committees, while serving as a good defense against charges of politics are perhaps even more condemning. It appears that empirical positivists and qualitative idealists are both likely to be involved in politics of research. Yet it is possible that social idealists may be more accepting of such a state of affairs because their philosophy and epistemology are consistent with socially constructed knowledge.

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A complete list of references is available from the author upon request.

# ISSUES IN MANAGEMENT OF LITERACY PROGRAMS

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This paper argues that in order to get increased resources and provide better access to services for their clientele, managers of literacy programs must approach their organizations from a managerial point of view.

Afin d'accroitre leurs ressources et d'offrir de meilleurs services à leur clientèle les programmes d'alphabétisation doivent être gérés à partir de principes administratifs.

The current literacy crisis in the western world has led industrialized countries to seek new means to help people improve their levels of literacy. A variety of literacy programs have been established in Canada, the United States, and Britain, among others. Methods and approaches to teaching literacy skills vary from one country to another and their impact is the subject of current research and testing. In Canada, for example, Frontier College, our oldest institution concerned with adult education, has instituted a method of literacy training known as Student-Centered Individualized Learning (SCIL). This is a self-directed, non-testing literacy approach which uses volunteer tutors and encourages learners to take control over their own learning processes. Another approach, the Laubach method, has also been used. In contrast this approach uses a highly structured curriculum and makes extensive use of tests.

These approaches and others have provided Canadians with some opportunities to obtain literacy skills. Program successes like those mentioned above, coupled with an economic climate which requires a highly trained work force, have given stimulus to governments to begin to provide some resources to organizations providing literacy services. The good news is that governments are finally responding in concrete terms to a problem literacy workers have been talking about for decades. The bad news is that as resources begin to flow to literacy programs and organizations, so do the demands for more and better management practices. This means that those who were previously doing their best to provide good literacy services must now divert some of their attention to organizational and management issues.

Organizations are constantly faced with the challenge of bringing together scarce resources to supply the products and services that people need or want. Managers are responsible for creating organizational settings in which these resources are used in the most effective and efficient way. From the development of bureaucracy in the late 1800's and the scientific revolution of the 1920's, to the more recent approach of team building, managers have attempted to develop ways of behaving and performing in order to maximize the use of available resources.

Although organizations active in the promotion of literacy are, of course, subject to the same necessity to make effective and efficient use of resources, their ability to do so has been limited by the very meager resources available to them. In attempting to secure resources from national or local governments, literacy competes for attention with a range of other health and social programs. As a small, marginal program in the public sector, literacy has received few resources, so it is not surprising that the management of literacy programs has been virtually ignored. Now, however, with the increasing emphasis being placed on redressing the problem of illiteracy, managerial questions are being raised: What is expected of managers of literacy programs? What are their roles and responsibilities? What tasks do they have to perform in order to provide effective and efficient services to the public? How do you build organizational capacity to provide sustainable literacy programs?

As literacy becomes a crucial national priority, managers of literacy programs will also face important questions of accountability. If such questions are not dealt with adequately, this will undermine the recent progress that has been made in combating illiteracy.

This paper presents a framework for thinking about the various functions that are required to manage literacy organizations. It suggests possible questions managers might ask themselves about what they do and how their organization is managed. The framework presented is meant to be heuristic in so far as we hope that it will stimulate reflection and thought regarding the management and organization of literacy programs.

## A Framework for Managing Literacy Programs

People organize to provide goods and services to the public. Organizations, in all their varied forms, are generally designed to meet the needs of their members and clientele. As you observe organizations in all their splendid forms, it appears that, regardless of their size or goals, organizations seem to need managers to carry out five generic functions. First is a strategic function. This deals primarily with managing the survival of the organization through understanding and acting upon the organization's relation with its environment. Second is the financial management function, which asks managers to be able to generate and control the money of the organization. Third is the marketing function. In this area the manager is asked to link the program, consumer needs and access, methods for service provision, and cost, in a rational fashion. Fourth is the personnel function which asks managers to deal with the needs of its employees in relation to the needs of the organization. Finally managers need to manage the program function. This is the organizational raison d'etre - the direct services it is providing to its clients. Unfortunately for literacy organizations, where our managerial size is quite small, these fundamental functions have to be fulfilled somehow and in some way. The creative question for literacy managers is: How can they be carried out? Figure 1 provides a framework for the administrative functions associated with the management of literacy

**Figure 1 -** Framework for the administrative functions associated with the management of literacy programs.

| | ADMINISTRATIVE FUNCTIONS | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Strategy Development | Financial Management | Marketing | Program Development | Personnel Management |
| Planning | | | | | |
| Implementing | | | | | |
| Monitoring | | | | | |

programs. Furthermore, it indicates that, for each of the five functions, managers need to plan; that is, to think about the future. Managers must implement, encourage, and require organizational members to do things that ensure the organization's success. Finally, managers must monitor the functions in order to ensure that the organization is "on track".

Clearly, it is a formidable challenge for members and managers in literacy organizations to carry out the various tasks implied by the fifteen cell grid is a formidable challenge. However, at the very least, literacy managers must begin to engage in the reflective act of reviewing the various tasks and functions and assessing their importance to the organization. Such reflection can produce new and improved ways of organizing so that we can provide better services. In Canada, our assessment is that if literacy organizations don't adequately come to grips with the managerial implications of this model then in a few years the gains made today might be lost.

To push our own reflection and those of literacy managers on these issues, the rest of this paper attempts to more fully clarify the managerial functions defined earlier and then provides a set of questions that can be used to stimulate reflection and dialogue regarding how to manage literacy organizations.

## Description of the Functions

### I. Strategy Development

The strategic function of management deals with survival of the organization over the long term. It requires managers and other organizational members to be able to analyze various environmental forces--political, economic, social, demographic etc. and to link the future trends associated with these forces to the realities of the literacy organization. Managerial research in other spheres of activity has come to recognize that such "environmental analysis" is crucial to the development of the other strategic issues of literacy organizations, namely their mission, structure, and the basic character of the services that are provided.

A Canadian example of the need for good strategy development can be drawn from a recently announced program, called READ Canada. This is a national literacy program established outside of formal schooling. Its focus is on children and it is preventative. In developing its mission, it attempted to capture in just a few words the dreams of its founder. It describes its mission as follows " every child in Canada should have a story in their life every day outside of school". The program manager is charged with designing the organization's structure and activities in order to accomplish this mission.

The mission of the program is clear. How to organize and provide service is extremely complex. The program and its execution can be altered by pressure brought to bear by environmental forces outside the control of the manager. External factors, such as legislative and political decisions, immigration flow, demographic trends, and the socio-economic environment, can have an impact on the program and affect its chances of survival. For READ Canada to survive, the program manager must be able to plan, implement, and monitor its strategy for survival. In developing their strategy, administrators of literacy programs can ask themselves the following kinds of questions:

> *Do we have a clear mission that captures the essence or our program?*
>
> *Do we adequately reflect upon and analyze the political social demographic economic environment?*
>
> *Are we doing a good job of communicating our mission to the public?*
>
> *Is our organizational structure congruent with our mission?*
>
> *Do we adequately develop plans and take action based upon our concept of the future?*

## II. Financial Management

The Financial management function is concerned with the generation, classification and interpretation of financial information that will assist the manager to meet organizational objectives. In this function the manager has a number of critical concerns. First, is to understand the types of possible funding avenues open to the organization. Historically, literacy program managers have paid very little attention to the development of revenue sources. Money usually came from one or two sources and that was that. Successful managers are more creative in the financial domain. Second, managers need to be able to generate financial information. Multi-year budgets, unit cost figures, and cash flow requirements are just a few of the myriad of data needs of managers. Thirdly, managers need a financial accounting system that will meet standards for financial control and, as well, be able to generate the management information needed. The level of complexity of the system should vary with the sophistication of the organization's structure. An effective accounting system should provide information for two main purposes:

- internal reporting to managers for use in strategic planning and controlling routine operations;
- external reporting to auditors and other outside parties. Conducted by adequate and qualified staff, the accounting system should generate information on budgeting, cash flow, current and future expenditures, and need for investment.

The following are typical questions that managers of literacy programs should ask themselves about the organization's financial management:

*Are we able to generate the financial information needed to make effective requests for additional funds?*

*Is our financial management information timely?*

*Can we generate and control a multi-year program budget?*

*Do we have an adequate financial control system which can compare our budget figures with actual expenditures?*

*Are our program activities adequately costed? Is there a way to adequately control program costs?*

*Can we justify the time required to collect financial data?*

*Do we spend enough time and energy in productive activities aimed at raising the revenues needed to make our program better?*

## III. Marketing Function

Marketing has not received much emphasis by those responsible for increasing literacy. And yet, literacy managers need marketing skills. In most not-for-profit organizations marketing skills are scoffed at and derided. People equate marketing with trivial advertising. This is not the case. The marketing function requires the following question to be asked of managers of literacy: Are we able to provide the best available services to the most people at prices which are competitive? Managers of literacy programs must be able to get services to their target populations with the best delivery channel available. They must ensure that their programs are familiar to potential clients, meet current needs, available and accessible, do not duplicate other services, and are using appropriate technology. The marketing function should be assessed periodically to see if the energy, time and money being expended are proportional to the results achieved.

Marketing efforts require a team approach since any member of the organization who deals with the public, whether by tutoring, teaching, fund raising, or lecturing, is a representative of the program and reflects negatively or positively upon its "image".

Despite this informal aspect to promotion, specific activities should be delegated to one or more individuals. The following issues should be considered in defining the marketing strategy:

*Do I know who my clients are and where they are located?*

*How can I convince my potential clients that literacy skills are important and needed?*

*Are we using the most effective channels of distribution?*

*How can our potential users learn about our service? What media will be most effective to reach our audience?*

*Can we convince funders that the need and our costs are appropriately linked? Are there a reasonable number of potential service-users?*

*Are we offering the best possible service for the price?*

## IV. Personnel Function

The key to any successful organization is its people; good management of human resources is vital to the achievement of organizational goals. Organizations active in promoting literacy have a complex task in that they use the services of volunteers and part-time workers and must operate on flexible schedules. Under these conditions, a good personnel system must facilitate communication among all members of the organization thus leading to more effective programs.
Managers of literacy programs should ensure that staff skills and personality match the organization's needs and goals. This concern should be reflected in the following personnel development activities:

- Selection: deciding on an appropriate number of staff members, developing hiring procedures, as well as a strategy for attracting volunteers.

- Training: designing a training program for all categories of staff members and deciding on retraining schedules.

- Retention: delegating appropriately and ensuring a fair distribution of work load. Developing ways to increase communication and participation among employees. These issues should be resolved through clear job descriptions and the organization's organigram.

- Evaluation: decisions should be taken on the frequency and the criteria for staff evaluation.

- Renewal: as with any organization relying on volunteers, literacy programs can be faced with a high rate of staff turnover and should thus develop a system for staff renewal.

- Rewards: all organizational members must feel that the services they are providing are appreciated. Clearly, salaries are the first level of reward, however, we know that in almost all literacy programs, organizational members rewards are built into the work itself. Therefore, managers need to pay attention to the balance between intrinsic rewards -the work- and extrinsic rewards -the money-.

The manager of literacy programs should enforce the accepted roles and responsibilities of all staff members on a daily basis. The manager should also review periodically the needs and goals of the literacy organization to anticipate changes in the personnel structure.

Managers might consider the following aspects of personnel development:

*Do we have a staffing plan? That is, do we have a way to think about linking people to current and future activities?*

*Are staff roles and responsibilities clear and differentiated?*

*Do we provide adequate opportunities for communication, and participation to encourage all staff members to become involved in the literacy program?*

*Is supervision adequate?*

*Are enough time and resources allocated to staff development?*

*Do we have a reasonable approach to rewarding those who work for the organization?*

## V. Program Development

Program development constitutes the "heart and soul" of most organizations. A program is a set of interrelated activities that leads to the fulfillment of the goals and mission of the organization. Typically, literacy organizations engage in a set of activities that define their program. Managers are expected to ensure that there are adequate plans, ways to implement, and a process for monitoring. These activities should lead to the fulfillment of particular objectives and be supportive of the goal and mission.

In developing literacy programs, managers should ensure that the program's objectives are realistic and accountable; all activities should be linked logically to these objectives. Attention should be directed to defining the needs of the target audience, to assessing the homogeneity of these needs and to adapting the program to this range of needs. Literacy programs have a life cycle (introduction, growth/maturity, saturation and decline) just as any program does. The stages in the cycle vary in length and depend on the context of the program as well as on the way in which strategy, finance, marketing, and personnel are managed. Program managers must understand the current stage of the cycle for their program and act accordingly. Their focus should be on making the literacy program programmatically and strategically successful.

The following are specific questions that program managers should ask themselves concerning planning:

*Are our objectives realistic, "do-able", accountable?*

*Do our activities make sense?*

*How do we make sure the activities are successful? What monitoring activities will we undertake?*

*Are we fulfilling our responsibilities to our funders?*

## Conclusion

Support to literacy organizations has recently become more "fashionable" to our society and our politicians. We could view the new-found popularity cynically and go on with our work substantially as before. On the other hand, it is possible to conceive that this an opportunity that might bring considerable increased resources and much better access to services for those requiring them. This paper essentially argues that if literacy organizations want to seize on this new opportunity, they must begin to approach their organization from a managerial point of view. A framework was provided along with a series of questions which, it is hoped, will guide a reflective intraorganizational dialogue. The process of dialogue and reflection will, we believe, lead towards improved managerial practices that are congruent with the program approach and its clientele.

# LEARNING IN THE WORKPLACE FOR UNSKILLED WORKERS: LESSONS FROM BRITAIN

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## Abstract

This paper presents the research of a study conducted in Britain during May, June and July, 1988. The purpose of the study was to determine the successful variables of workplace learning for unskilled workers.

Ce rapport présente les résultats d'une étude effectuée en mai, juin et juillet 1988 en Grande Bretagne. L'étude visait à déterminer les variables du succès des programmes d'apprentissage en milieu de travail pour les ouvriers.

## INTRODUCTION

Over the past ten years a series of experiments, projects and programs providing Adult Basic Education (ABE) in the workplace have been conducted in Britain. A range of creative activity has taken place that aims at handing over the responsibility for ABE provision for workers to the employer. Cooperation among Local Councils (responsible for education), trade unions, and employers is achieved through negotiations initiated by unions, Council members or, most frequently, by an independent ABE consultant organization called WORKBASE.

WORKBASE was created in 1979 with some funding from the adult literacy unit of the national government's department of education. Since that time it has aided fifteen different employers in over thirty workplaces in London, and has developed over eighty student-centred workplace related basic education courses. Each course is specifically designed to meet the needs of the participants and the employer in specific workplaces, as well as teach general reading, writing, language and numeracy skills.

In other regions of England, Scotland and Wales similar efforts have been made to provide workplace learning programs. SECOND CHANCE and TAKE TEN are well established schemes that arose out of adult and continuing education policy discussions among education authorities, employers and unions. These programs are not limited to language skills but include study of legal, social or political topics that learners want to understand better.

This paper identifies ten factors which are linked to the success of workplace programs. These factors are not prescriptive but indicative of success and should be considered as adaptable and applicable to a variety of workplace settings and organizational cultures. They have been drawn from experiences in both public and private settings in several different industries. The common denominator is that all factors were present in the provision of successful educational programs to manual or unskilled workers in the workplace.

## PLANNING COMMITTEES

WORKBASE began its operation in 1978 by a unique cooperative strategy of working closely with employers, unions and educators to increase workers' learning opportunities. By participating on a planning committee, representatives were best able to establish goals and objectives for the program and link the employer interests with learner interests. Employer bias toward short term training was lessened and employer-led programs avoided. The planning committees were able to reconcile employer values of training with adult education values of participatory, democratic long-term learning (Mace and Yarnit, 1987). These planning committees ensured professionalism and return on investment of time, energy and resources for employers wishing to implement programs (Bonnerjea, 1987).

## USE OF EXTERNAL NEEDS ASSESSMENTS

External needs assessments lend a legitimacy, professionalism and seriousness to the workplace program. Most organizations found that employees were less suspicious of employer motives for programs when they were interviewed by a professional external to the employer organization (Bonnerjea, 1987; Take Ten Annual Report 1986-87). A company personnel officer was seen as a threat to workers, who were hesitant to give out personal opinions to them and often responded negatively to questions, thwarting the results of the needs assessment.

## RECRUITMENT OF GROUPS RATHER THAN INDIVIDUALS

Avoiding employer selection of individuals was necessary to eliminate negative reactions to the sensitive issue of literacy learning (Mace and Yarnit, 1987). Identifying the target group was left up to the employer. In some cases a whole department was signalled, in others a section or small group of workers on a similar job. However, it was found that after promoting the opportunity, self-selection for the course was the least threatening and most successful way for the program to regenerate. Initially, only the most confident and the least in need come forward, but they promote future courses (see Smith, 1986 for further exploration of this topic).

## PAID RELEASE TIME

After evaluating worker participation in programs, results showed that it was important to provide cover or paid release, to enable women workers especially, to participate in courses from which they would have otherwise excluded themselves (Macaskill, Scottish Community Education Council). A common practice is for employee and employer to match time such as 1/2 hour from a one hour lunch with 1/2 hour of work time. In cases where workers did not have a common workplace such as Home-Helps, one paid hour was allotted after work at a common meeting place with transportation and childcare provided. These kinds of provisions are necessary if the majority of women workers want to benefit from workplace programs. It is these workers who usually cannot attend courses provided externally, due to family commitments. Even some would not attend workplace courses due to fear or guilt about leaving their job undone or unoccupied for that period (Bonnerjea, 1987).

## LEARNER-CENTRED PROGRAM DESIGN

Fundamental to the effectiveness of workplace programs is that they are learner-centred and self-directed. It is important that they are "labour-run"--workers' programs , dedicated to their needs (Mace and Yarnit, 1987). Initially, learners and tutors identify the issues and determine the curriculum for the rest of the course. Each course agenda is built around a theme decided by tutors and learners and can be given out to course members one week in advance. The self-directed methodology aims at enabling learners to be as active as possible in their own learning by means of visits, information gathering tasks, short discussions, reporting back, interviewing and role play. Reading and writing skills develop through these activities. Underlying this self-directed approach is the understanding that learning, especially literacy, is not isolated to "see Jane run" but is rooted in social patterns and learning and living systems.

## HOME GROWN LEARNING MATERIALS

Effective materials are those that the learner is confronted with everyday at the workplace. Memos, union notes, safety posters and instructions, manuals, advertisements are to be adapted and used as tools for teaching reading and writing. Learners in the workplace must make meaning from a wide variety of written and numerical forms such as charts, gauges, publicity posters or legal and government documents. The best understanding of how to interpret the words, and the way words are used other than phonetically, is to employ these documents as teaching tools.

## EFFECTIVE TUTORS

Effective tutors were those that had some training about adult learners, their learning styles, the barriers to learning and prior experience brought to learning. The aim is to have a tutor that shares the knowledge and understanding of the learners. The best tutors proved to be those from the group itself who came forward to offer their services. WORKBASE encourages employees to volunteer, provides tutor training and helps management establish tutor training programs.

## INCLUDE A FORMATIVE EVALUATION PROCESS

It is important that the planning committee evaluate the course in progress to determine which facilitating styles the learners best respond to, if the issues and topics chosen to study are still appropriate half-way through and if the materials chosen are at the appropriate level for learning. A course should be flexible enough to adjust midstream if necessary in order to maximize effectiveness, then redesigned after the final evaluation.

## EMPLOYER, UNION SUPPORT

No program is complete or effective without employer cooperation. This must include clerical and administrative support with personnel prepared to take on tasks pertaining to the program. Simple things like providing pencils or flip charts or having the course schedule typed out can be crucial to the program and organization relationships. Support also includes positive attitudinal behaviour from supervisors. Demeaning attitudes of immediate supervisors toward workers on a course assures dropout (Mace and Yarnit, 1987). Management must provide orientation and awareness training to encourage positive behaviour from supervisors. Employer support also includes a course follow-up for individuals who want to continue in other courses, seek a job change, or who want assistance to higher education. The greatest frustration expressed by learners was having no where to go after the course was finished (Take Ten Annual Report 1986-87). It is therefore important that courses form part of a program of learning that runs on a continuum and is linked to further education. If a union is involved, then union support in the way of promoting, financing and negotiating courses, shows their worth to workers. If a consultant is involved, support must extend to follow-up and employer takeover of the program.

## FUNDING PROGRAMS

WORKBASE Director, Frances Graham, expressed that employers were generally reticent about wholly financing pilot programs. They were, however, usually prepared to match public monies with physical and human resources. After completion of a pilot project employers were more willing to finance programs and to begin to think in terms of a workplace education budget. Success at achieving widespread implementation of workplace programs lies in initial investment from public or union sources with financial responsibility eventually being assumed by the employer or by the employer and union through their collective agreement.

## CONCLUSION

The ten success factors discussed are grounded in a philosophy of providing efficient, effective and equitable workplace learning programs. They contribute to long term improvement of labour conditions, relations and productivity and should not be perceived as short term solutions to particular problems. These factors are part of the infrastructure of life-long learning and go hand in hand with organizations committed to creating learning environments where job performance is linked to learning opportunities. Success with workplace programs requires not only helping people acquire the technical skills of reading and writing, but also helping them develop the confidence, critical thinking techniques and decision-making capabilities needed to put these skills into practice in all aspects of their lives.

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# THE TEACHING-LEARNING EXPERIENCES OF PROFESSIONAL CAREER CHANGERS IN HIGHER EDUCATION: A LOST OPPORTUNITY

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## ABSTRACT

In this study, the experiences of professionals who have gone back to school to change careers is examined. Their treatment as "adults" in the teaching situation and the extent to which instructors utilize the skills and knowledge they bring from their professional work experience is explored.

## RESUME

Ce raport examine les expériences des professionnels qui ont retourné à l'école pour faire un changement de carrière. Il considère leur traitement comme adultes dans leur enseignement professionel et la manière dans laquelle les professeurs utilisent leur habilités et leur connaissances qu'ils ammènent de leur expériences professionelles.

## Introduction

This research examines the way in which beliefs about the teaching-learning situation of adults are experienced in regular degree programs in higher education. A sample of professionals who have gone back to university to study for another career in a different profession provides the perspective on the use of adult education principles in traditional programs of study.

The notion that adult education is something practiced only in institutions offering non-credit programs is still widely held. This is in contrast to the fact that adults are the fastest-growing population on campuses, with occupationally-related reasons such as career change frequently cited as a reason for returning to regular degree programs (Aslanian and Brickell, 1980). Predictions that the traditional-aged university population will decline over the next ten years and adults over 25 will become the fastest-growing group in North America have placed educators in the position of seeing demographics "... as a game, with the goal to get as many adults on your side" (Cross, 1987). The trend, both here and abroad, is to see an increase in the numbers of adults returning to school who already have some academic qualifications and a decrease in the number of "first time returners to learning" or "second-chance students" (Slowey, 1988).

Also, in response to the expansion of the knowledge society and a rise in vocational education, enrollment has shifted from the social sciences and humanities to professional areas and an increasing market for first professional degrees such as law, social work and business (Vicere, 1985). In spite of this, there are few studies of older students in professional, degree-granting programs. While students in Continuing Professional Education (CPE) are one source of information about professionals, there still is a lack of a systematic understanding of the way in which professionals learn (Cevero and Dimmock, 1987). This study is intended to address that gap.

## Methods

A sample of professional career changers, stratified by professional field, was selected for this study. A "professional career changer" was defined as a person who had a degree, had worked in a professional capacity for at least two years, and had returned to university to pursue another degree in a different professional occupation. Forty semi-structured interviews were conducted with a sample of career changers. Twenty-two were women and eighteen were men, each of whom was pursuing a degree in one of nine professional faculties on the U. of Calgary campus (for example, a teacher studying in the Law Faculty).

The results reported here are a small part of a larger study examining the relationship between education and professional career change, in particular, those qualities that facilitate or hinder career change.

Two aspects of the professional career changers' teaching-learning experience are examined here. The first is the extent to which professional career changers perceived themselves as being treated as "adults." Professional career changers are "adults" in every sense of the word, having engaged in what Bryson (1936) refers to as the ordinary business of life: having occupied a number of social roles such as worker, spouse and/or parent.

The second dimension explored here is the extent to which their instructors utilize the skills, knowledge, and attitudes that career changers bring from their previous education and professional work experience. Recognition of the adult's experience is regarded as a keystone in understanding how adults learn and are taught. Lindeman (1926) differentiated adult education from other forms of education by emphasizing the primacy of personal experience which he thought could be pursued through small group discussion. Dewey (1936), on the other hand, claimed that all education began with experience. Andragogy assumes that experience is a rich resource for learning and it is through experiential techniques such as small group discussion, field experience and case studies that learning is most meaningful.

This research examined whether their skills, knowledge and attitudes were used within or outside of the classroom -- if at all -- and whether their treatment as adult students was initiated by themselves or by their instructors.

## Findings

With respect to the first dimension, the skill and knowledge respondents had identified as useful in their classroom participation could be classified as "Personal Transferable Skills" (PTSs). These, according to Gash and Reardon (1988) are work skills which are not specific to any subject or profession. They are the skills career changers felt enabled them to learn their new subject matter. The PTSs mentioned most frequently were these:

1. Communication skills, oral and written
2. Ability to work in teams or groups; ability to organize or conduct groups
3. Interpersonal skills, including the ability to motivate, deal with people from a variety of backgrounds, and understand human behaviour
4. Presentation skills
5. Research skills
6. Analytical skills
7. Personal organizational abilities, including budgeting time, good personal work habits, organizing work, andgeneral study skills
8. Ability to coordinate projects
9. Problem-solving skills
10. Leadership including the ability to speak out and express opinions.

These PTSs are in contrast to the knowledge or specific subject matter expertise mentioned by the career changers such as such as administration, computers, negotiation, the oil and gas industry, technology, health issues and the environment.

Respondants were asked the extent to which instructors made use of the PTSs they earlier had identified as helpful in their classroom participation and also how they could make use of them. Over half the respondants felt their instructors hadn't made use of their skills or knowledge. Several were unaware of how they could. Others expressed reservations that such acknowledgement would create a situation where the students' comments might not be relevant to the experience of the rest of the class as illustrated by the following comment:

> My participation in class can be helpful because I've had experience in similar areas and more time to reflect on it. But I tend to hold back because I'm aware other students haven't had as much experience. Because I'm older, I'm afraid to appear overwhelming or a know-it-all by shifting the focus from the class to me.

Of those who said their PTSs were used in the classroom, their responses could be classified according to the mode in which their experience was used: inside or outside the classroom. The majority of those who felt their instructors used their knowledge and skills mentioned incidents where they were asked to do something for the instructor outside the classroom, for example as a teaching or research assistant, working on a conference, and doing papers or assignments for the course. Responses involving the expertise of these students inside the classroom were less frequent and included being asked to comment on a specific topic if they had worked in it, being asked to explain something, working in groups where they could demonstrate their people skills and in-class presentations. Career changers suggested that instructors could make better use of their skills and knowledge by getting to know their students' backgrounds. Even here, they expressed reservations about being able to do this because of limitations of class size or an "institutionalized way of thinking." Recommendations of how they could make better use of the students' experiences included these:

1. More in-class presentations
2. Grouping students with similar interests at the outset of the class
3. Being asked to help out in responding to students' questions
4. More time given for students to share experiences in the classroom
5. Doing assignments and presentations that reflect expertise.

As one student said:

> We're all from different backgrounds, but the professors don't even try to recognize this. They don't work on the strengths the students have. I think I could learn a lot from my fellow students. There should be an opportunity to do this, but there isn't. I've learned more outside of class than in class.

Another student said "Together we're smarter than anyone else. We have a lot of experience in a variety of areas. The instructor should draw this out."

One principle of effective practice in facilitating learning is the respect that teachers and students should have for each other's self worth (Brookfield, 1986). Recognition of that worth can be perceived in the extent to which instructors treat students as adults. In contrast to their younger and less professionally-experienced colleagues, the professional career changers in this sample saw themselves as having a level of maturity where they could take a more holistic view of things and see things in perspective. They saw themselves as more accepting of the learning process reflected in their ability to distinguish what was being studied from the context in which it was studied. In other words, they could focus on the content without being bogged down by the ritual of being students. They saw themselves as process experts equiped with those PTSs previously discussed. These skills allowed them to be more confident and assertive.

It is this confidence and assertiveness that characterizes their relationship with the instructor and lies at the heart of the question as to whether they were treated as adults and in what ways. Twenty of the respondants felt they had been treated as adults while twelve felt so only in some instances and eight felt they were not treated as adults at all.

The response of the twenty who felt they were treated as adults could be classified according to whether they were student-initiated or instructor-initiated. An overwhelming proportion of the interviewees who perceived themselves as being treated as adults saw this as student-initiated. This tended to occur when the respondants saw themselves as being able to approach the professor on an equal basis, talk to the professor more frequently, initiate a conversation, or ask questions in class. Professor-initiated interactions were far fewer and were expressed in terms of talking to students on a first-name basis, classroom discussion as opposed to lecturing, extension of assignment deadlines, a "peer attitude," being responsible for getting one's own work done, leeway in projects and defining the scope and nature of projects.

Those who didn't feel they were treated as adults at all spoke of a polarization or distance between themselves and their professors with the need to pay homage to the status aspects of the position, ill-prepared classes and arbitrary cancellations, lack of sharing of experience, and having to give the professor what he or she wanted to hear in order to get a good grade. The attitude that students come after the professor's research and furthering of their careers was also mentioned.

Many of those who answered both positively and negatively felt that such treatment depends on different professors and was also conditional on the students' initiating contact themselves on a more "equal basis." As one student put it, "How I'm treated is based more on how I respond to my professors. If I treat them as my equal, then they are more straight with their comments and criticisms."

## Discussion

It would appear from these findings that professional career changers do experience a measure of success in being treated as adults. This comes, however, from the adults themselves, who possess a certain level of assertiveness, confidence and maturity to initiate this type of student-teacher interaction. This raises the question of how those who are less assertive, confident or mature are treated. Similarly, professional career changers are able to use a variety of their PTSs in their classrooms when they are initiated through their own efforts. This initiation can once again be attributed to their maturity, confidence and understanding of the learning process. Professional career changers are prepared to do things on their own and for other students. However, many are critical of their instructors' abilities to manage the learning resources they (career changers and other older students with experience) bring and call on their instructors to capitalize more consciously on their work experience, background, and prior academic experience.

The desire to learn from one another is particularly strong and is akin to what Belenky et al termed "connected knowing, the "...conviction that the most trustworthy knowledge comes from personal experience rather than the pronouncements of authorities" (1987, p. 113). Many, however, are still uncritical of the way in which their skills and knowledge can be used. This is a reflection of the way in which both students and teachers have been socialized in to the educational system.

## Conclusion

Employers are increasingly concerned that graduates lack the interpersonal, communication, problem-solving and teamwork skills necessary to assume their jobs as professionals (NAB, 1986). Ironically, the PTSs with which career changers come fully equipped and use in the "business of learning" the new subject matter are are not recognized in the learning situation. That they are good at utilizing the PTSs is further demonstrated by the fact that their career changes were voluntary and they experienced a measure of success in their previous careers.

The research presented here is only exploratory and bears further investigation. More attention needs to be paid to distinguishing between different types of experience, such as the "professional" experience that career changers in this study bring to the learning situation.

Finally, for higher education to be able to respond to extensive societal and technological changes, there is a need for broadly-based educated people with the skills that will serve as the foundation for a lifetime of learning (Cross, 1987). To ignore this represents a lost opportunity to use the unique combination of professional, work, and educational experience these career changers bring to the classroom.

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# LA RESISTANCE A L'OBJET MUSEAL COMME CONTEXTE DU REFUS D'APPRENDRE DE L'ADULTE.

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## RESUME

Le processus d'apprentissage du visiteur est de plus en plus au centre des préoccupations des muséologues. Le contexte muséal présente des particularités qui le distingue des autres lieux d'apprentissage. La présente étude s'est intéressée à identifier les raisons qui entourent le refus d'apprendre du visiteur adulte au musée.

## ABSTRACT

The learning process of the adult visitor is becoming an area of prime concerns from museum professionals. The museum context includes unique caracteristics that distinguish it from other sites of learning. The reasons explaining why some adult visitors do not learn in a museum is the topic of the present research project.

Traditionnellement, le musée s'est concentré sur la conservation et sur la présentation d'objets. Maintenant, une fonction éducative s'impose de plus en plus en plus comme une priorité du musée. C'est d'ailleurs ce qu'exprimaient les éducateurs des plus grands musées nord américains réunis dernièrement à Toronto (1987). Ils y affirmaient, entre autres, leur détermination à faire du musée un endroit d'apprentissage (Dufresne-Tassé, 1988). Pour atteindre cet objectif, les éducateurs et les muséologues sont d'avis qu'il faut connaître le fonctionnement du visiteur au musée, c'est à dire, son processus d'apprentissage.

## PARTICULARITES DU CONTEXTE MUSEAL.

Les particularités du contexte muséal ne peuvent provoquer un apprentissage équivalent à celui qu'offre l'école. Le contexte muséal, en effet, présente plusieurs caractéristiques qui singularisent l'expérience que le visiteur adulte y vivra. D'abord, la démarche du visiteur y est volontaire, elle fait appel à une participation choisie par l'individu (Booth et al., 1982; Pitman-Gelles, 1981). Elle est également libre parce qu'elle permet au visiteur de choisir et d'y exercer sa liberté d'action et de pensée (Mostny, 1972). De plus, le visiteur n'a pas l'obligation d'apprendre (Lakota, 1976; Bloom et al., 1984; Lewis, 1980 cité par Miles, 1986; Screven, 1969; Gurian, 1982). Le musée est également anormatif et acompétitif (Lamarche, 1983);il n'offre pas de programmes d'apprentissages séquentiels, il n'est pas non plus régi par des autorités qui structurent de manière uniforme les connaissances à transmettre. Ni diplôme, ni évaluation ne contrôlent les acquis à la sortie du musée. Pitman-Gelles (1981) qualifie donc l'apprentissage qui s'y produit d'informel, alors que Tressel (1980) souligne que le visiteur perçoit souvent l'apprentissage reçu comme accidentel. De par ses caractéristiques, le contexte muséal offre au visiteur une latitude et une marge de manoeuvre telle que le contact développé entre l'objet et le visiteur offre plusieurs possibles. L'expérience du visiteur pourrait-elle donc comporter une part d'imprévu? Le contact objet-visiteur présenterait-il des composantes accidentelles? Y aurait-il d'autres phénomènes que le phénomène "apprentissage" qui seraient de nature accidentelle? Le contact, la relation qui s'établit entre l'objet et le visiteur nous est apparu comme étant un aspect intéressant à étudier pour comprendre le fonctionnement du visiteur. Le contact englobe la totalité de l'expérience du visiteur et ne nous limite donc pas qu'à l'aspect apprentissage. Même si pour la plupart des muséologues, l'éducation est l'expérience-clé au musée, l'étude du contact nous semble préalable puisqu'elle peut mettre en lumière d'autres aspects que ceux primés par les muséologues.

## APPROCHE METHODOLOGIQUE.

Dans le but d'étudier de plus près la relation objet-visiteur, nous avons recueilli les verbalisations spontanées de quarante-cinq adultes durant leur visite d'une exposition de coquillages présentée dans un musée de sciences naturelles. Suite à cette cueillette de matériel spontané, chaque visiteur était appelé à s'exprimer plus en détails par le biais d'un instrument projectif. Suivait ensuite une entrevue ouverte qui se terminait sur des questions précises.

Les données ainsi recueillies nous ont permis de constater les composantes de la relation objet-visiteur. Elles nous ont également permis d'identifier l'aspect "résistance" à l'objet muséal: éloignement, rejet, parfois indifférence à ce qui lui est présenté, parfois même réactions de recul ou d'opposition.

## LA RESISTANCE: SES MANIFESTATIONS, SES EFFETS.

La résistance se manifeste par le biais des différents types de fonctionnements identifiés chez le visiteur. Certaines résistances sont de l'ordre du fonctionnement perceptif du visiteur, d'autres de son fonctionnement imaginaire, et enfin d'autres sont liées à son fonctionnement rationnel. La résistance se manifeste également par le biais du fonctionnenment affectif. En effet, l'absence d'émotions ou la présence d'émotions "négatives" suscitées par certains objets font obstacle au contact. Le pouvoir d'évocation des objets ou les attentes des visiteurs provoquent parfois frustration, ennui, déception ou tristesse.

La résistance peut également provoquer différents effets chez le visiteur, elle peut diminuer la richesse de sa relation avec l'objet, ralentir le développement d'un contact avec l'objet ou tout simplement couper toute forme de contact.

Ces données nous indiquent les facteurs qui influencent la décision du visiteur de s'accorder un "dialogue" avec l'objet ou de se "taire". L'étude de la résistance du visiteur adulte nous permet de saisir la dynamique de son fonctionnement au musée. Elle nous permet également de nuancer notre compréhension du refus d'apprendre de l'adulte.

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# RADIO AND ADULT EDUCATION: AN IMPACT PARTICIPATORY ADULT EDUCATION METHOD.

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## ABSTRACT

The purpose of this descriptive qualitative study was to investigate how radio has been used to disseminate information to adult farmers in rural communities. Findings in the study reveal how to effectively use radio for Impact Participatory Adult Education (IPAE) method.

## RESUME

L'object de cette étude qualitative et descriptive a été pour examiner comment le radio a été employé pour répandre des informations aux fermiers adultes des communautés rurales. Les découvertes dans cette étude révélent comment se servir du radio effectivement pour l'impact de participation de méthode d'éducation adulte.

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This paper reports on a study which describes how radio has been used to disseminate information to adult farmers in Manitoba rural communities; and presents a framework for Impact Paarticipatory Adult Education (IPAE) uses of radio.

The design and procedures followed for the study were that of descriptive qualitative methods ascribed in part by Lincoln and Guba (1985), Miles and Huberman (1984), Carney (1983, 1972), Bogdan and Bilken (1982), Patton, (1980), Glaser and Strauss (1967).

The sample was drawn from Manitoba and consisted of fifteen communication experts who have used radio to spread information to adult farmers. The format selected for the study was that of in-depth structured interview. A six section structured interview questions or 'interview guide' was developed, pilot-tested, field tested, and used to conduct the interviews. Although the guide contained structured questions, the interview format was also open-ended.

After each of the interviews, transcripts were made, and a summary of each interview was prepared. These were mailed out to the respondents for verification and qualitative validation. Following this, "displays" or summary charts and tables (Miles & Huberman, 1984) were constructed and a collective summary of all interviews was written. Analysis of the data took place thereafter.

To analyze the collected data, each of the interview tapes was first listened to and then compared with the field notes. All interviews were transcribed and read, at least three times, while listening to the audio-tapes. During this process, "memos" and "analytical notes" (carney, 1983) were made. Using Carney's modification of Geertz's 'thick description', the collected data were focused by summarizing each individual interview. This was necessary "to make the information gathered more easily manageable (and) to sort out the main ideas" (Oberg & Dufresne-Tasse, 1986, p.15). Although greatly reduced in volume, the individual summaries took into account the tone of the interviews and the content of the dialogues while focusing on the structured questions.

The general summary analysis was carried out by identifying recurrent themes and areas of emphasis in communication experts' responses to the structured interviews. To facilitate presentation of the raw data, displays, tables, and summary charts (Miles & Huberman, 1984) were constructed for specific coded questions and sections respectively. The questions were coded on the basis that they were soliciting specific responses. The summary charts were constructed by focusing on the noted patterns and major themes of each section (e.g. How do communication experts plan their radio programs?), and by identifying the views of each communication expert for that particular theme. This type of summary charts acted as the "analytical 'ladder of abstraction'" (Carney, 1983, p.13) thereby, permmitting the identification of recurrent themes and areas of emphasis during the interview. (For a full detail of the study methodology, see Nwaerondu, 1986a,b).

## SUMMARY OF MAJOR FINDINGS

From the analysis and synthesis of the generated data, it was possible to identify a number of key findings. These findings applied to the five major sections of the interview guide. Generally, it was found that the interviewed communication expert did not use radio to educate, but rather to elevate awareness, to remind and to inform adult farmers in rural communities. It was also found that the purpose of disseminating information in Manitoba rural communities was two fold: 1) to provide timely, up to date, accurate, useful, technical and procedural farming information; 2) to improve farming practices and market decisions, farm management ability, quality of life, income, and standard of living on the farm.

With regards to the 'how' of information dissemination, it was found that:

1. Manitoba Communication Experts plan radio programs cooperatively and sometimes, in consultation with the target audience.
2. Manitoba Communication Experts produce radio programs by following four major steps. These steps follow two main routes and are preceded by identification, needs assessments, and research.
3. Manitoba Communication Experts deliver information by, unconsciously, following the folklore practice of 'INTRODUCTION-CONTENT-SUMMARY.' The participants in the study professed the viability of interview and discussion formats of delivery; and the use of print media in conjunction with radio programs.
4. Manitoba Communication Experts evaluate radio programs informally with orientation towards feedback. The results were mainly used for program improvements.
5. Manitoba Communication Experts made some relevant and reasonable recommendations for impact participatory educational and informational uses of radio. In their recommendations, five significant characteristics that must be taken into consideration

when programming for adults were identified. These characteristics were: simplicity, community involvement, indigenosity, radio forum approach, and multi-media approach.

## FRAMEWORK FOR IPAE USES OF RADIO

One of the objectives of the study was to establish a framework for (IPAE) uses of radio in the extension services, especially, in developing countries. In an attempt to accomplish this objective, the following framework (Nwaerondu, 1986a) was developed for consideration. This section describes the components of each phase.

Phase 1: Needs Assessment. The needs assessment phase of IPAE uses of radio should determine the gaps between current uses and required (or desired) uses (Kaufman & Stone, 1983; Mayer, 1986). It should attempt to answer the following questions: Where are we going? What are we to accomplish? Why are we going there? And how far is it from where we are now? By answering these questions, the organizers should determine the existing gaps, the targeted destination and the raison d'etre for working towards such destination. These questions should be answered by conducting preliminary research studies and consultations with concerned adults. Such preliminary studies and consultations must aim at assessing the specific needs of the concerned adults, society, community, village or rural areas, as well as answer the various problems foreseen by the respondents in the study (Nwaerondu, 1986a).

Phase 2: Planning and Development. Once needs assessments show a green light to continue, the organizers are automatically in phase 2 of the framework. In this phase, a foundation and standing block for IPAE uses of radio should be laid. To accomplish this, the organizers should form various planning and development committees such as:

a) Advisory Committee which will oversee the whole scheme and provide advice as required, or where necessary.
b) Planning Committee which will be in charge of planning and controlling the whole scheme.
c) Subject Committee which will be in charge of determining the subjects and topics of interest to the target audience.
d) Production Committee which will be in charge of writing up the scripts, forum guide, program, as well as their production. It may consist of subcommittees such as print material producers, writers and audio-producers.
e) Delivery Committee Which will be in charge of organizing listening groups, heading group discussions, overseeing the use of equipment and providing feedback to the planning committee. It may also consist of subcommittees such as field advisors, teachers, village chiefs, and secretary convenors.
f) Evaluation Committee which will be in charge of carrying out on-going evaluation, providing continuous feedback for scheme modification and improvements; and carrying out a summative evaluation to assess the results and effectiveness of the whole scheme.

These committees must work cooperatively and in conjunction with each other. They must have a communication network which will enable them to provide a workable timetable for all of their activities, responsibilities and coordinations.

Phase 3: Production. If the above two phases are carried out effectively, phase 3 will be simplified immensively. It then becomes a collection and coordination of ideas and concepts from each committee; and the production of the programs, support materials and scripts by the production committee. Of particular significance to the production phase is the subject committee and its activities. This committee must determine the subjects and topics in such a way so as to avoid criticism, and have impact on the audience. This can be done by involving the target group and representatives of all concerned segment of the society during the initial brainstorming of subjects and topics. Alternatively, it could be done through consultation and research. In this case, it should focus on some of the questions outlined in the study. (Nwaerondu, 1986a).

Phase 4: Implementation/Delivery. As an action phase, the planning and advisory committee is expected to open up the building whose foundation was laid in phase 2. Although the delivery committee has a lot more responsibilities, the success of the whole scheme depends upon effective execution of each committee's responsibilities. The production committee must be able to supply program guides and support materials based upon advice of the advisory committee and the subjects recommended by the subject committee. The delivery committee must make sure that participants are organized and ready to receive the information. The program must be perfect based upon feedback provided by the evaluation committee.

Phase 5: Evaluation. The effective execution of responsibilities should be determined by the evaluation committee right from the beginning and pilot stages to the end. Therefore, each phase of the processes should be evaluated and provided feedback as to their improvements. The summative evaluation will then be done at the end of the project.

It must be born in mind that these five phases of the framework run parallel with each other, interacts with each other and must be coordinated, like a suprasystem with systems and subsystems, in order to accomplish any predetermined purposes. This can only be done through a suitable communication network which allows every member/committee to cooperate, consult and coordinate the whole scheme. In this framework, the systems are the five phases while the subsystems are the different activities to be performed by each commmittee.

## RECOMMENDATIONS FOR IPAE USES OF RADIO

From this study, five recommendations for Impact Participatory Adult Education (IPAE) uses of radio were derived.

1. The Development of a Framework for IPAE Uses of Radio. This framework views IPAE uses of radio as a suprasystem with systems and subsystems which must be planned, organized and coordinated in order to accomplish predetermined purposes. The system (e.g. plan, production) and subsystems (e.g. organizing listening groups) must be interrelated and must provide continuous feedback for modification and improvement of the suprasystem. In this framework, the processes of using radio for IPAE activities is viewed as a 'science of organizing and organization.'

2. The Production of IPAE Handbook. For effective IPAE utilization of radio, it is desirable to have printed words to act as a guide, advance organizers and as a reinforcer. This approach was used in Ghana, India, the Dominican Republic and has proved to be indispensable. Each handbook should contain: 1) the objectives of the project and the individual radio programs; 2) materials of use to participants as well as group leaders; 3) specific supplementary reference materials such as books, papers and contact persons; 4) specific activities to be used before and after the broadcasts, and follow-up activities; 5) comprehensive outlines of subject matters to be covered during each broadcast; 6) specific methods of group preparation before and after the broadcast; 7) questions and ideas for discussion; and 8) a calendar indicating the date and names of the broadcsats to be received. This handbook must be provided to each participant ahead of time.

3. The systematic training of producers/organizers. Irrespective of the background and experience of program and material producers, field organizers/teachers, and other involved individuals, it is absolutely necessary to organize some 'preservice' or 'inservice' training for them (FAO, 1977). This training should create awareness and understanding of the aspects of adult education, rural development and effective utilization of IPAE broadcasting. It should provide clear operating procedures in order to ensure that each participant knows their responsibilities. The involved agencies, institutions and their representatives should also understand what their roles are, and what is expected of them.

4. The IPAE radio programs be recorded on tapes. It would be wise to record the programs on tapes for diversified disposals and applications. The tapes could be used for various purposes: for the individual active participants who might be absent; for young groups of adults, clubs and associations who might be interested; and for reinforcement and record keeping purposes.

5. The maintenance of a maximum length of radio programs to fourty-five minutes. Because of the limitations of our attention span, and our inability to retain verbal information for a longer period of time, it is recommended that the general length of IPAE radio programs be thirty minutes; maximum to be forty-five minutes with intermittent breaks and discussions.

## CONCLUSION

It is my belief that if the proposed framework and recommendations of the study are carefully studied, adopted, modified and adapted to each user's culture, context, need, political and organizational structures, the IPAE purposes of using radio must be fully achieved. To put it in another way, permit me to borrow this idea from Michael Neil (1981) which says: "..., before you "adapt", listen to your mother tongue, learn your own people's games, observe your people's technologies, listen to them describing their functionings, then, do get inspired by the [framework and recommendations of this study] ... (p.96).

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# FROM EUPHORIA TO CRISIS: THE LESSONS OF THE OPEN UNIVERSITY'S FIRST TWENTY YEARS

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## ABSTRACT

The Open University has a reputation as a world leader in distance education.It is often seen as a model to be emulated by others. In spite of its achievements, the o.u. is a less satisfactory model in terms of its adaptability and its commitment to open, recurrent learning. Its emulators can learn more from its current attempts to re-apraise and re-structure that from its past achievements.

## RESUME

L'université ouverte a été reconnue à travers le monde comme un chef de file. Elle est souvent vue comme un modèle à imiter par d'autres. Malgré ses réalisations, l'université ouverte est cependant un modèle moins satisfaisant en termes de son adaptabilité et de son implication dans l'apprentissage récurrent. Ses promoteurs peuvent davantage apprendre dans ses tentatives en vue de ré-évaluer et de re-structurer plutôt que dans ses succès passés.

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> " ... the traditional university, in which a course is conceived in solitude in the lecturer's study and delivered interactively in the classroom, has been stood on its head in the Open University ... where the course is conceived in interaction and studied (largely) in solitude " (4).

This 'interaction' was largely confined to a small elite of centrally based academics, while the courses they created were mostly tutored by a large number of regionally based part-timers. The latter, many of whom also worked in 'traditional' institutions, often felt marginalised and perhaps even exploited by the system. The former were sometimes perceived as being out of touch with student needs and with life at the grass roots.

The division of responsibilities for tuition and counselling was also potentially dysfunctional. Full time counsellors were required to supervise part-timers, thus adding to bureaucratic complexity. Students could be confused by a system which allocated them not only to a tutor but also to a counsellor, who would probably have no familiarity with their course. Resentment could arise as course tutors were sometimes drawn into a counselling role anyway, simply because of their more regular contact with students.

In one important respect, the early O.U. was not particularly innovative. Perhaps its least radical characteristic was that it did not immediately become involved in sub-degree adult and continuing education. To an even greater extent than conventional universities, the O.U. was then preoccupied with producing graduates. One significant, if unintended, consequence of this was that students were recruited disproportionately from the professional and middle classes. Particularly over-represented were schoolteachers who, because of the importance of graduate qualifications to their career advancement, accounted for a high percentage of total enrolments in the early years. Clearly, such an outcome was inconsistent with the goal of radically widened access to higher education. However, it was not necessarily problematic provided it was no more than a short term phenomenon. The questions which now arise relate to the capacity of the system to change and adapt. Being an innovative leader is not a self-perpetuating condition: a system's long term viability depends on its ability to modify or abandon early innovations as well as to introduce new ones.

All three relationships identified above - centre/region, tuition/counselling, and undergraduate programme/continuing education - remain problematic today. The task of resolving these issues has become more demanding because of financial difficulties during the 1980s. This, together with a heightened awareness of the need to adapt to a rapidly changing and increasingly competitive educational climate, led to the establishment of the most comprehensive review of the O.U.'s activities ever commissioned.5 Its report calls for organisational change to make the university more adaptable. It recognises that previous change has been incremental rather than radical, and that it has been easier to make recommendations than to implement them. In each of the three areas currently under review, it is clear that organisational size and complexity have sometimes impeded change.

The structure of the O.U., by creating diverse powerful constituencies, has sometimes engendered defensive responses to proposals for change. Many full time regional staff were for example understandably lukewarm when it was recently suggested that numbers could in some circumstances be reduced, and that roles might be amalgamated. The predominance of central academic staff

The structure of the O.U., by creating diverse powerful constituencies, has sometimes engendered defensive responses to proposals for change. Many full time regional staff were for example understandably lukewarm when it was recently suggested that numbers could in some circumstances be reduced, and that roles might be amalgamated. The predominance of central academic staff in course production has not been seriously eroded. If anything, reduced travel budgets have made the involvement of regional and part-time staff more problematic. In spite of substantial changes over the past 20 years, the 'academic review' is emphatic that much remains to be done in terms of decentralisation and of administrative rationalisation regarding matters such as admissions and publicity. It argues that part-timers should become more closely involved in course production. It seems that the radical centre/region structure which the O.U. started with has perhaps not always encouraged innovation and flexibility, and might have perpetuated the marginal status of many of its personnel. It remains a system which makes inefficient use of the considerable human resources on which it could draw.

Although changes were made in the early 1970s, the counsellor/tutor distinction has since remained remarkably resilient. Perhaps this is justified on the basis that the original division of functions continues to be the most appropriate. Yet counselling has not been the subject of a major enquiry since the early 1970s, although there have been significant changes affecting needs. Students now have less educational 'qualifications'; they are more likely to follow non-degree programmes; more of them are women. Courses are now more likely to require technical and computer skills, while fees are considerably higher. Change has been gradual, but without any parallel evolution in counselling provision, which has perhaps deteriorated owing to resource constraints. It is now recognised that a major review is required if the O.U. is to meet the changing counselling needs of students, which possibly reflects the belief that the system was not sufficiently responsive in the past.

Some of the most profound changes of the last 20 years concern the O.U.'s role as provider of continuing education (CE), which now has more students than the undergraduate programme. However, this seemingly successful adaptation was in some ways less than innovative. The O.U. was slow to emulate the innovative practices of others. It has, for example, failed to respond to an obvious need for, and interest in, language training. Arguably, it lags behind other providers in catering for the needs of 'seniors'. The introduction of CE was more like adding on a new activity or department, rather than embracing a new philosophy. It has not always attracted total support from conventional academics, some of whom appear to rate it as a fairly low priority. Efforts continue to 'integrate' CE more effectively with the O.U.'s other activities, though it is doubtful if this can be totally successful without a re-orientation of values elsewhere in the organisation. I believe that this requires a more widespread recognition of the importance of recurrent learning needs. This is already happening, as can be seen from the O.U.'s recently expanded staff development programme. What is still required is a more general acceptance of the view that graduates as well as employees have continuing learning needs.

The O.U. has innovated and adapted during its first 20 years, but the question remains of whether it has done so soon enough and fast enough to constitute a useful model for others to emulate. Before considering this question, two preliminary observations are in order. One is that the O.U.'s imitators abroad have normally been more concerned to emulate its general philosophies, goals, and methods rather than its specific structural features. The other is that, notwithstanding the rhetoric of some of its more eminent protagonists, the O.U. has preferred the roles of facilitator and advisor to that of model. It has been cautious, possibly even reluctant, about involvement in international ventures. It would be quite unfair to suggest that the O.U. assumes it has evolved a system which is entirely appropriate to the needs of others. Nevertheless, the question arises of whether the O.U. has achieved what it set out to achieve.

The O.U. was designed to offer more open access to undergraduate education, and to deliver this by radically new means. As regards the latter, there can be little doubt that the O.U. has been a considerable success. In the former connexion, there has also been substantial progress, though this has not always proceeded at a spectacular rate. The class composition of the O.U.'s student population has come gradually to approximate more closely to that of the country as a whole, though a substantial gap remains. Because of this, attention has recently focused on establishing a unit for monitoring 'equal opportunities', in regard both to access and support. More alarming is the widespread concern noted in the 'academic review' that the system is becoming less rather than more open.

To some extent, this is seen as the inevitable consequence of government policies and of technological change. Apart from rising fees, which are becoming a deterrent to access, students are expected to pay for an increasing range of support services. Most significantly, there is a growing number of courses for which students are now required to provide their own home computing facilities. Financial pressures favour programmes which are profitable rather than popular. Courses in business and management are attractive not just to upwardly mobile professionals in the U.K., but also to their counterparts elsewhere in the European Community. The upshot is that, even in its international ventures, the O.U. seems more inclined to promote activities which are less rather than more open. It has, for example, played a less positive role in the new Commonwealth of Learning than might have been expected.

Fears about the openness of the system do not however relate exclusively to exogenous factors over which the O.U. has little control. Doubts have been expressed about whether the O.U.'s internal structure is in every respect conducive to openness. Its regional centres are not always in the most appropriate locations. It would perhaps reach more people if it had a network of smaller offices instead of large regional centres. [illegible] collaborative links with other local providers, many of which are now able to offer part-time students more contact hours and more opportunities for social interaction. It could do more to make its courses and its publicity appropriate to local needs and interests. Its undergraduate programme [illegible] open in terms of when students can enter or leave the system, of how and when they will be assessed, and of the duration of courses.

As the foregoing observations suggest, there are many people within the O.U. who feel that the system has weaknesses as well as the obvious strengths normally associated with the quality of its research and its teaching materials. I believe that the range and character of these weaknesses is such that there have to be serious qualifications to the view that the O.U. is an undisputed leader whose path is bound to be followed by others. Obviously, this depends to a considerable degree on the philosophies by which others are guided. Those who are committed to the belief that the prime function of distance education is to provide for recurrent learning needs will find less inspiration in the example of the O.U.; those whose major concern is to produce graduates will see the O.U. as a more useful model. Quite apart from considerations of pedagogy, the economic and cultural characteristics of a society are bound to influence its perceptions of the O.U. as a model. It is a system which requires a level of investment in infrastructure which is beyond the reach of many societies, and which would be difficult to justify in others. In some societies, concern about the preservation of regional and cultural diversity would militate against emulation of such an encompassing institution.

I believe that the early years of the O.U. gave rise to two problems which have impaired its value as a model ever since. One was that it had to create a cumbersome bureaucracy to service what was in some senses a monolithic organisation. The other was that it assumed the mantle of doyen: it was from its inception cast in the role of a leader without rivals, not just in U.K. but also on the international scene. The former was a problem in that it made change and adaptation slow and difficult processes. The latter became a problem in that it probably delayed recognition of the fact that even leaders must in some instances become learners and followers. Paradoxically, the O.U. has probably become a more valuable model in the crisis years of the 1980s than it was in the euphoric years of the early 1970s. Crisis and competition have forced the O.U. into a radical reappraisal of its structure and purpose. It remains to be seen what will emerge from this, but it is a distinct possibility that critical self-analysis will transform the O.U. into an even more dynamic and innovative institution. In this sense, would-be imitators might well learn more from the O.U.'s current travails than from its past achievements.

## FOOTNOTES

1. Towards a New Commonwealth of Learning, Commonwealth Secretariat. London. 1987. p. 11.
2. The Open University Into The 1990s: First Report of the Steering Group for the Academic Review. The Open University. 1989. p. 4.
3. Comments made by the O.U.'s Vice-Chancellor in his eulogy to the late Baroness Lee. Quoted in Open House, no. 267, p. 2. February 1989.
4. John S. Daniel & Clement Marquis, "Interaction and independence: getting the mixture right", Teaching at a Distance, 14, p. 31. 1979.
5. The Open University Into the 1990s. See above. Subsequently referred to as the 'academic review'.

# EFFET DE LA COMPETITION SUR LES REACTIONS DES FEMMES A LA PERSPECTIVE D'UN EFFORT INTELLECTUEL A FAIRE POUR EFFECTUER UN APPRENTISSAGE

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## RÉSUMÉ

Dans une situation de non compétition, les femmes de cette étude acceptent sans hésiter de faire l'effort nécessaire pour apprendre. Dans une situation de compétition avec d'autres femmes et avec des hommes, les réactions de ces dernières sont les mêmes mais elles choisissent des domaines et des situations d'apprentissage différents.

When there is no competition, women in this research accept, without hesitation, to make an effort to learn. When they compete with other women or with men, they have the same reaction but they choose different domains and different learning situations.

## INTRODUCTION

Une recherche portant sur les réactions des femmes à la perspective d'un effort intellectuel à faire pour apprendre (Patoine, 1989) a permis de comparer ces réactions dans des contextes de non-compétition, de compétition avec d'autres femmes et de compétition avec des hommes.

Le contexte théorique de cette recherche, établi à partir des travaux sur des secteurs connexes à l'effort: la motivation à l'accomplissement (achievement motivation), les facteurs pouvant influencer cette motivation et l'anticipation de la fatigue due à l'effort, permettait d'anticiper une réaction négative de la femme devant les situations qui exigent un effort intellectuel important pour réussir; non pas parce quelle aurait peur de l'effort en soi mais plutôt à cause de facteurs sociaux et culturels qui peuvent freiner son désir de réussir (Patoine, 1988). Les résultats révèlent cependant que les sujets de cette recherche, trente-trois femmes, enseignantes au primaire, âgées de 35 à 40 ans, réagissent positivement à l'effort nécessaire pour réussir un apprentissage dans une situation non-compétitive. (Patoine et Dufresne-Tassé, 1988).

Par ailleurs, plusieurs chercheurs utilisent la situation de compétition comme un révélateur puissant des réactions des personnes dans différents contextes. A l'instar de ces chercheurs, nous pensons que cette situation peut mettre davantage en relief les réactions à l'effort intellectuel qu'une situation de non-compétition. Voilà pourquoi nous avons choisi de comparer entre elles deux situations de compétition, avec des hommes et avec des femmes, et une situation sans compétition. Les femmes réagissent-elles aussi positivement à l'effort dans une situation de compétition ? Le présent article vise à cette question en comparant les résultats obtenus dans une situation de non compétition avec ceux obtenus dans les situations de compétition soit avec d'autres femmes, soit avec des hommes.

## CONTEXTE THEORIQUE

Des recherches signalent que les femmes sont moins compétitives que les hommes (Farmer, 1976; House, 1974; Maccoby et Jacklin, 1974), c'est à dire qu'elles n'ont pas tendance à réussir dans des situations de compétition (Feather et Simon, 1975). Selon Deci, Betley, Kale, Abrams et Porac (1981), la compétition, même avec un adversaire de même sexe, diminue la motivation intrinsèque, c'est-à-dire le sentiment de compétence et d'auto-détermination associé au comportement de réussite, particulièrement chez la femme. Hoyenga et Hoyenga (1979) affirment, pour leur part, que les femmes sont plus inquiètes des répercussions négatives de la compétition, ce qui aurait pour effet de les inciter à fuir les situations où elle est présente.

Comme la situation de compétition en est une qui favorise davantage son désir de réussir, mais surtout d'être la meilleure, nous croyons que la femme aura tendance à hésiter, voire même à refuser de faire l'effort intellectuel nécessaire pour réussir un apprentissage, particulièrement en situation de compétition avec des hommes. Les hypothèses sont donc formulées ainsi:

- Une situation de compétition avec des femmes n'amène pas plus de rejet de l'effort chez la femme qu'une situation où il n'y a pas de compétition;

- Une situation de compétition avec des hommes entraîne chez la femme plus de rejet de l'effort qu'une situation où il n'y a pas de compétition;

- Une situation de compétition avec des hommes entraîne chez la femme plus de rejet de l'effort qu'une situation de compétition avec des femmes;

## METHODOLOGIE

Les données sont recueillies auprès des mêmes sujets et lors de la même rencontre que celles utilisées pour la situation sans compétition (Patoine et Dufresne-Tassé, 1988). L'épreuve projective comporte en fait trois stimuli, un présentant une situation sans compétition, un autre, une situation de compétition avec des femmes et enfin un troisième, une situation de compétition avec des hommes.

Une analyse qualitative des données est réalisée à l'aide d'une grille élaborée à partir des informations fournies par le contexte théorique et par les protocoles issus d'une pré-expérimentation.

RESULTATS

La seule des trois hypothèses confirmée par les résultats est celle mettant en comparaison les réactions des femmes dans une situation de compétition avec d'autres femmes avec celles obtenues dans une situation de non-compétition. La situation de compétition avec d'autres femmes n'entraîne pas plus de rejet de l'effort que la situation de non-compétition, le pourcentage de femmes qui le refusent étant de 9,1% et de 3,1% respectivement, différence non-significative.

Quant aux deux autres hypothèses, elles doivent être rejetées car la situation de compétition avec des hommes n'entraîne pas plus de rejet de l'effort que les deux autres situations, ce qui est contraire aux hypothèses formulées. Dans cette situation, les femmes refusent en effet de faire l'effort dans une proportion de 3,1% seulement.

L'examen des hypothèses pourrait donc nous amener à conclure que la compétition n'a pas d'effet sur la réaction des femmes à la perspective d'un effort intellectuel. Une comparaison des trois situations pour chacune des catégories de la grille est cependant apparue nécessaire car à la lecture des protocoles, les histoires décrites dans chacune d'elles laissaient voir des différences. Nous avons ainsi confronté les données obtenues pour chacune des catégories dans les différentes situations. La valeur des comparaisons réalisées entre les trois situations a été établie au moyen du test Q de Cochran alors que la comparaison des situations prises deux à deux l'a été à l'aide du test de McNemar (Siegel, 1956).

Des différences significatives entre les situations apparaissent dans cinq catégories; quatre concernent l'apprentissage, soit le type d'apprentissage, le domaine d'apprentissage traditionnel, le domaine d'apprentissage non-traditionnel, et le cadre académique d'apprentissage, et une, un aspect de l'effort, l'attention volontaire.

Apprentissage non professionnel: Le choix d'un apprentissage non professionnel domine dans une situation sans compétition, alors que dans une situation de compétition avec des hommes, les femmes privilégient l'apprentissage professionnel.

Type d'apprentissage: traditionnel et non traditionnel: La situation de compétition avec des hommes stimule, chez la femme, la tendance à choisir des apprentissages de type non traditionnel, c'est-à-dire des apprentissages habituellement choisis par des hommes (ex: architecture) alors que la situation de compétition avec des femmes l'amène à choisir des apprentissages dans un domaine plus traditionnel (ex: secrétariat). La situation sans compétition entraîne des types d'apprentissage choisis autant par les femmes que par les hommes.

Il semble donc que les femmes de cette étude affrontent un compétiteur sur le terrain de ce dernier, qu'il soit féminin ou masculin. Dans une telle situation, l'affrontement ne peut être que serré et exigeant. Pourquoi les femmes ne choisissent-elles pas d'affronter le compétiteur sur un terrain qui ne serait pas familier à ce dernier? Cette stratégie pourrait leur faciliter la victoire sur l'autre.

Cadre académique: Dans une situation de non compétition, les femmes se tournent vers un milieu de formation pour effectuer un apprentissage alors qu'elles choisissent l'autodidaxie lorqu'elles entrent en compétition avec des hommes.

Que penser de ces résultats? Tiennent-ils au fait que les femmes de cette étude imaginent des personnages plus autonomes dans les situations de compétition avec des hommes? Ou comme ayant un niveau de formation si élevé qu'il ne leur est pas utile de fréquenter une institution d'enseignement? Ou bien s'imaginent-elles que la compétition avec des hommes se situent à un niveau tel que ceux qui s'affrontent ne fréquentent plus aucune école? Nous ne saurions dire.

Attention volontaire: Lorsqu'il n'y a pas de compétition en vue, les femmes voient davantage l'effort comme une affaire d'attention volontaire, c'est-à-dire comme une tension causée par le fait que la personne doit faire une activité alors que son intérêt est tourné vers une autre, ce qui n'est pas le cas lorqu'il y a compétition avec des femmes. Ce résultat doit cependant être considéré avec réserve car les données comparées (6, 0, 2) contiennent un 0.

De l'ensemble des données que nous venons de présenter, il ressort que la compétition n'a pas d'effet sur la décision de faire un effort, ni ne semble influencer la façon dont les femmes voient l'effort. Par contre, elle a un impact limité sur divers aspects des apprentissages que ces femmes prévoient faire. La compétition semble les orienter vers des apprentissages professionnels réputés masculin ou féminin, selon que l'affrontement est prévu avec un homme ou avec une femme, excluant ainsi toute stratégie susceptible de mettre l'adversaire dans une position difficile, mais amenant, du même coup, la femme à se mettre elle-même dans une situation très exigeante. Enfin, elle les amène à fréquenter des maisons d'enseignement surtout lorsqu'il n'y a pas de confrontation en vue, comme si un affrontement, particulièrement avec des hommes, se situait à un niveau tel que les protagonistes ne fréquentent plus l'école.

Les résultats obtenus étaient inattendus. Le contexte théorique laissait entrevoir un impact de la compétition sur la réaction des femmes. Deux raisons peuvent expliquer cet écart. La première, de nature sociologique, est liée à la place de plus en plus grande de la femme dans divers secteurs du marché du travail. La réussite de la femme est mieux acceptée socialement et les modèles de réussite féminins sont de plus en plus nombreux.

La deuxième raison a trait aux stimuli utilisés. L'ensemble des travaux consultés recouraient à des situations imposées et volontairement choisies parmi les situations reconnues culturellement comme masculine. Dans cette recherche, le sujet avait la liberté d'imaginer lui-même la situation.

Les résultats obtenus dans cette étude, bien qu'intéressants, apportent des surprises de taille. Il est trop risqué de les généraliser à l'ensemble des femmes car cette recherche a été menée auprès d'un groupe restreint et particulier de sujets. D'autres recherches doivent être réalisées qui nous permettront de mieux comprendre l'impact des réactions à l'effort sur l'apprentissage.

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# ADDICTIONS TRAINING USING DISTANCE EDUCATION

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## ABSTRACT

The School for Addiction Studies, a Division of the Alcoholism and Drug Addiction Research Foundation of Ontario, recently began to offer distance education programs. Activities include tele-conferencing, radio collaborations, correspondence courses, and hosting a symposium on the uses of technology in addictions.

L'École d'études sur la toxicomanie a récemment commencé à offrir des programmes pour l'enseignement à distance. Les activités incluent la téléconférence, la collaboration avec les postes de radio, les cours par correspondance, et un symposium sur l'emploi de la technologie dans le domaine des études sur la toxicomanie.

## Background

The Addiction Research Foundation offers training programs designed for professionals and other workers involved in the alcohol/drug and related fields. Its objectives are to improve knowledge about addictions and to develop and refine the skills required for the management of associated problems.

## Introduction

Up until the early 1980s most courses at the School for Addiction Studies were offered at its offices in Toronto with some extension programs in other locales in Ontario. Even with the inclusion of extension programs it was felt that many areas and populations did not have access to the School's programs. The problem was how to service these communities and populations in a cost effective manner.

## Rationale for Distance Education

As briefly indicated, one of the rationales for the introduction of distance education at the School for Addiction Studies was a need to service more of the province of Ontario. Even with an increasing number of programs given outside of Toronto, there were still gaps in service. The desire was to have at least some of the programs available for all the people in Ontario. This of course, was coupled with the need to stay within budget. Clearly, flying faculty all over Ontario was not a cost effective way of training.

Geographical access to training, however, was not the only factor in the decision to embrace distance education. Some students who had geographical access to the programs could not attend for other reasons, for example they could not take time off work to attend courses.

The decision was made in 1984 to begin to develop some distance education materials and explore alternatives to the current formats. It should be made clear that we were not looking for a second class way of training these populations. We were looking to develop programs that were equal or better than our regular programs.

## Teleconferencing

Our first attempt at distance education was a series of teleconference entitled Research Updates. The purpose of these teleconferences was to provide ARF staff with the latest information on key areas of addictions. We currently have 30 offices located throughout the province of Ontario, thus teleconferencing was an effective way of giving all staff the opportunity to take part in this learning. Since we also wanted the experience to be interactive in real time, teleconferencing was the logical choice.

After the topics were chosen, we located two experts in each field. Our preference is usually to select one expert from within our organization and one from elsewhere, usually the United States. This allows participants to hear the latest research from within our organization and be aware of other research that is going on as well. Our outside resource persons have included researchers and theorist who are at the forefront of their areas. We are able to get these experts to participate for a fraction of the cost of bringing them to Ontario.

Participants in the teleconference are sent copies of relevant articles in advance of the actual on-line teleconference. On the day of the session, before going on-line, participants discuss the articles and prepare questions for the experts. Thus the speaker does not have to do a presentation but just answer questions on his/her work. Participants have rated these teleconferences as very helpful and we have found them to be a cost effective way of staff education.

Until the present, ARF has not had its own teleconference equipment and therefore has had to use other facilities. We have used hospitals, government of Ontario, post secondary institutions and Contact North equipment. ARF has just recently purchased a convenor and microphone(s) for all of its community offices. The approximate price of a convenor and one microphone is $1,200. The approximate cost of a research update teleconference including site rentals, material preparation, bridge rental and long distance charges is $500.

Another teleconferencing activity is a collaboration with Telemedicine Canada. Telemedicine Canada offers audio teleconferences to over 300 hospitals and other health facilities in Canada. These conferences are 45-50 minutes long so that staff who attend will only be absent from their work station for 1 hour. They offer a series of teleconferences for doctors, nurses and allied health professionals.

So far the School has done between 3 and 6 telemedicine programs per year. This collaboration allows us to present short courses that are available to large numbers of people. Telemedicine Canada provides the bridge and teleconference sites and we supply the expertise.

## Radio Collaborations

In 1985 we began collaborating with Open College/CJRT on a 20 hour course to be broadcast on radio. Open College is the educational division of radio station CJRT in Toronto. It is a non-profit radio station funded by the Ontario government and listeners. At the time of the collaboration, CJRT broadcast from the CN Tower and was available within a 100 mile radius of Toronto.

The course broadcast was entitled Fundamental Concepts in Addictions. It was a twenty-one program overview of the alcohol and drug field. Each program was broadcast three times a week, once in the day, the evening and on the weekend. Students paid $ 150. to register in the course and received a workbook, texts and the services of a tutor. In addition to these registered students, the Bureau of Broadcast Measurement estimated that approximately 18,000 people listened to any given hour of programming.

Each one hour program contained a short lecturette on the day's topic as well as interviews with experts. Approximately 50 interviews were conducted over the course of the series. Interviewees included staff from ARF and other alcohol and drug related organizations in Ontario as well as experts from the U.S.

This course was broadcast again in 1986 with 22 registrants. This project is a good example of a collaboration that benefitted both organizations a great deal. ARF reached a great many people that they would not have had access to and Open College got some interesting programming.

In addition to the Fundamental Concepts in Addictions course, ARF has collaborated with CJRT on two series of phone-in programs entitled Alcohol, Drugs and You. Each week the ARF host and two guest experts discuss topics and then field questions from listeners. The series included programs on Smoking, Prescription Drug Use and the Elderly.

### Correspondence Courses

After being broadcast on radio twice the Fundamental Concepts in Addictions course was updated and used as a correspondence course. Instead of listening to radio broadcasts, students now listen to audio cassettes of the material. Students are sent the audio cassettes, a workbook, readings and are assigned a tutor at ARF. They can now listen to the cassettes at any time, and indeed students have used car radios and walkmen to complete the course.

Between 1986 and the present this course has been offered 4 times with between 20 and 25 students each offering. In addition to students from Ontario we have had participants from Newfoundland, Alberta, North West Territories, Australia, United States and Belize.

A lot of the development costs for the Fundamental Concepts in Addictions course are hidden in the sense that staff time was involved in setting up the course. Originally an instructor was seconded to CJRT/Open College for a period of 4 days a week for 14 months. The current ARF cost of the package that students are sent is $150.

Another distance education course is Pharmacology and Drug Abuse. As a centralized program this course was a popular one and is a core knowledge course in the addictions. This course was developed by a team which included a course chairperson, instructional designer, pharmacologist and layout specialist. Except for the instructional designer, all of the team members were employed by ARF.

The course is mostly print based using a workbook, reference notes and a text book. The print material is supplemented by 6 audio cassettes. A tutorial system is also used. Students progress through their workbook which points them towards material to study and contains exercises for them to complete. There are four assignments in this course which students submit to the tutor.

Not including ARF staff time, this course cost $8,000. to develop. After the fourth offering, we will break even in terms of the development costs. The ARF cost of the package which includes the workbook, reference notes, text audio tapes is $110.

Our latest project has been to develop a distance education course entitled Alcohol, Other Drugs and the Law. The course team consisted of an instructional designer/writer, course chairperson and a content consultant. This course is aimed at those working in the addictions field with little or no prior knowledge of the law.

The material is print based with the addition of 4 audio tapes and a VHS videotape. The audiotapes feature interviews with a lawyer who is an expert on alcohol and drug law, and a provincial court Judge. The videotape, on drinking and driving, portrays a driver being initially pulled over by the police, blowing into a roadside screening device and then a breathalyzer, and being charged, fingerprinted and photographed.

The Foundation was recently awarded a contract by the Ministry of Health to look at the use of technology in the addictions field. A Multitechnology Symposium entitled Addictions Education and Training for the 1990s was held in Edmonton in early February. This symposium brought together representatives from all of the provinces and territories to discuss further uses of technology in addictions education and training. Presentations were made by corporations and individuals who had developed new technologies and new uses for existing technologies. Presentations included demonstrations of computer assisted learning, electronic blackboard, videodisc applications and current distance education activities in the addictions field in Canada. A report on the symposium including recommendations for the use of technology is currently being produced. The long term goal is to attempt to train workers from all provinces and territories in Canada without having to bring them to one central location.

Using distance education has allowed the Foundation to reach a much wider audience than would be possible by offering its courses at its head office in Toronto. The organization is committed to offering more courses and seminars by distance education and to research the uses of new technologies on addictions education and training.

# ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS IN LEARNING AT A DISTANCE

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## Abstract

This paper identifies ethical considerations associated with providing opportunities for learning at a distance. Concepts characterizing common features of learning at a distance situations are described. Ethical issues associated with the admission, intake, and retention of students; course development and presentation; marketing; administration; learner/facilitator interaction; and evaluation are highlighted.

Ce document identifie des réflexions éthiques qui s'associent de fournir des occasions à apprendre de loin. On décrit des opinions qui caractérisent des traits communs de l'emplacement de ceux qui apprennent de loin. On illumine des issues éthiques qui s'associent de l'accès , de l'admission et de la retention des étudiants; le développement et la présentation des cours des études; le marketing; l'administration; l'échange entre étudiant et faciliteur; l'évaluation.

## Defining the Field

The support of learning at a distance has been a field of practice for many years. However, the study of activities in support of learning at a distance is quite new. Perhaps as a logical consequence of this recent emergence, there is a plethora of terms used to describe ideas with a similar conceptual base. Keegan (1980) refers to the "lack of unanimity" (p. 13) of terminology on the topic.

Several authors (Kelly & Smith, 1987; Lewis, 1986; and Sewart, 1987) have characterized the variety of approaches to education as falling between two poles - one pole being distance education and the other, traditional education. A continuum of other opportunities exists between the polarized ends. In one conceptualization, open learning is a step away from distance education along this continuum. From this perspective, Smith (1987) predicts a "convergence" of distance and traditional education methodologies.

An alternate approach is to conceptualize distance education, traditional education, and open learning as ellipses which intersect. In this approach, open learning is not completely distance education (Tight, 1988a); all distance education is not completely open (Keegan, 1988; Smith, 1987); and, the purposes of traditional education can be accomplished by distance, open, or conventional means.

In preparing to consider the ethical dimensions of providing for learning at a distance, it is not our intention to enter the centre of the definitional fray. What is of greatest importance is to identify the key characteristics or commonalities of the field because the field of practice is the source of ethical dilemmas.

## Key Commonalities

We propose that five "commonalities" can be used to characterize the practice of learning at a distance. These are discussed below.

### An Adult Clientele

The typical student at a distance is an adult (Nelson, 1988; Kahl & Cropley, 1986; Holmberg, 1986) who has clear reasons for participating (Kahl & Cropley, 1986). Tight (1988b) notes that "open learning is particularly appropriate for adults ... who appreciate its flexibility, and are better able than children or adolescents to utilise the freedom and responsibility which it gives them" (p. 25). The ability to make decisions (Holmberg, 1986) and the intrinsic motivation (Cropley & Kahl, 1983) that are part of the adult psyche provide a "fit" into the more open approaches of learning at a distance.

## A Gap Mediated By Technology

Typically, in learning at a distance, there is a gap between teacher and learner for at least part of the learning experience. This gap may be temporal or spatial and can be bridged using various technologies. Holmberg (1985) refers to "organised distance study as a mediated form of guided didactic conversation" (p. 3). However, both parties in the conversation may not participate at the same time or place. Because this is often the case, a carrying vehicle for the message must exist. Holmberg (1986) notes that modern-day information technology makes distance education possible by providing "new means for presentation of learning matter and for student-tutor and tutor-student interaction" (p. 31). If this is the case, we can expect that, in the future, learning at a distance will be even further linked with communications technology in ways that, at this time, we may not be able to envision.

## An Institutional Base

Institutions which offer opportunities for learning at a distance include those which also offer traditional education, and those devoted exclusively to distance education and open learning. Snell, Hodgson, and Mann (1987) indicate that distance education institutions take action related to "instruction, tutoring, assessment, and counselling" (p. 161) and that, usually, whatever materials are prepared are considered to be the instructional component. The institution directs learning by structuring the materials and through the interaction between facilitator and student. Holmberg (1985) says that in distance education, students "benefit from the planning, guidance and tuition of a tutorial organisation" (p. 1). In Peter's (1983) depiction of an industrial production model of distance education, the institution is essential to the educational offering.

## Increased Access

Increasing access has typically meant freeing the learner of the constraints of time and place that exist in traditional education. The learner is given increased access to resources for learning and is able to retain more control of where and when learning will take place and how quickly progress occurs (Wedemeyer, 1968).

Peters (1983) describes distance education as an industrial production process where the goal is simply to allow the largest number of people to participate, regardless of where they are or what other constraints are operating in their lives. Holmberg (1985) also refers to distance study as providing for "non-contiguous communication" (p. 1) in which there is a physical distance between teacher and learner. This access offers the learner a modicum of independence (Keegan, 1980). Snell, Hodgson, and Mann (1987) refer to this kind of activity in distance teaching as "dissemination-oriented education through the removal of the need for learners to be in the presence of individual teachers" (p. 164)

Having seemingly solved some problems of access for learners through distance education offerings using various technologies, the move toward "open learning" may be a reflection of perhaps a more subtle dimension to increasing access. Ballard (1987) astutely questions whether the terms "open access" and "open learning" are synonymous.

## Individualization

Probably the newest, the least recognized, and, ultimately, the most controversial dimension of the creation of opportunities for learning at a distance is that of individualization for the learner. It has been demonstrated that learning at a distance can open doors to learners which were previously tightly closed due to limitations of physical access. But learning at a distance can also provide opportunities for learners to expand their knowledge and skills in directions that are unique. Perhaps even more than in traditional education settings, it is possible for educational institutions offering learning at a distance to provide for individual purposes and processes in meeting learning needs.

Individualization refers to allowing the learner to choose from a range of teaching/learning methodologies and objectives. In such a scenario, "It is the role of the teacher to assist learners, where desired, in identifying what they want to learn, and then to help them to undertake this learning" (Tight, 1988b, p. 23). This can be a characteristic of traditional education but may not happen because of limitations in those settings. It is a characteristic which can make learning at a distance truly unique. This approach puts a greater responsibility for learning on the learner (Wedemeyer, 1968) but also permits wider choices. Truly open learning with institutional support would permit a student "greater chances than conventional students of individually selecting what he is to partake of" (Holmberg, 1979, p. 18). Snell, Hodgson, and Mann (1987) show that the recent conceptual shift from distance education to open learning signifies a movement "beyond an educational approach with roots in the transmission and regularization of knowledge towards one with roots in the individual's creation of his or her own meaning and understanding" (p. 169).

## Observations

Before focusing more closely on specific ethical issues, it is useful to consider a broader perspective on the relationship between providing opportunities for education and ethics. Education is always an endeavor with ethical implications. Freire (1972) argues that education is not neutral. If these statements are true of traditional education, they are even more true of situations where educational institutions offer opportunities for learning at a distance. Some of the purposes of providing more educational opportunities stem directly from political and social issues. The need to create more equality of access to educational opportunities and, ultimately, equality of opportunity on a grander scale in the society are examples. The belief is that education can help individual people and that they, in turn, can contribute further to the development of society. Aside from any ethical dilemmas related to day-to-day tasks in the provision of opportunities for learning, providing for learning at a distance is an inherently ethical task.

## Ethics and Ethical Sensitivity

The term "ethics" is used here to refer to "the systematic exploration of questions about how we should act in relation to others" (Rhodes, 1986, p. 21). Ethics is especially relevant to situations where harm to one can be caused by the actions of another. Many occupational groups are governed by codes of ethics that spell out in more or less detail a set of principles intended to guide the practitioner when making decisions and taking other actions on behalf of a client. Abiding by a code of ethics is often required if one is to continue to practice, and violations of such codes are cause for expelling an individual from the occupation. If a code of ethics does not exist as, for example, in distance education, then, practice is governed by the sanctions which are a usual part of organizational life and by whatever personal code of conduct guides the actions of the distance education practitioner. This state of affairs is somewhat troubling because it means that the "client" is protected only to the degree that practitioners and the organizations in which they work are sensitive to the ethical dimension of their work and diligent in enforcing whatever code of conduct is in place to protect the interests of the client.

## Ethical Considerations in Learning at a Distance

The primary purpose of this paper is to increase the ethical sensitivity of those involved in providing for learning at a distance by identifying and discussing practices that may affect the welfare of others. The issues are organized within six overlapping clusters of tasks that are performed in every formal educational enterprise and are presented as questions concerning rights and obligations of students, tutors, and the unit or institution that provides opportunities for learning at a distance. Although many of these questions are just as relevant in more conventional educational settings, failure to address them satisfactorily has more serious consequences in providing for learning at a distance. To obtain a detailed analysis of these issues, please write to the authors.

### Admission, Intake, and Retention of Students

This cluster concerns the practices involved in establishing and maintaining a satisfactory relationship between the educational provider and the student. Questions relevant to this cluster include: What obligation does the distance educator have to determine that the applicant has the requisite traits and skills to assure a reasonable probability of success? If admissions are limited to those with the requisite traits and skills, what implications does that have for the "openness" and "accessibility" that are so often hailed as the virtues of programs offered in a distance mode? Does the institution have an obligation to protect both the student and the program from "failure"? Does the student have a right to fail? What obligation does the tutor have to counsel students out of a program even if the financial incentive works against such action? Will the tutor act in the best interest of the student or in his or her financial interest? What obligation does the institution have to reduce preventable dropout -- that is, dropout that could and should have been prevented through changes in the policies, procedures, or actions of the agents of the institution?

## Course Development and Presentation

This cluster concerns the practices which guide the design of educational programs offered through the institution. Questions related to this cluster include: What are the obligations of course developers to design packages that reflect the diversity of thought and forms of knowledge in a field of study? To what extent is the developer obligated to include exercises that encourage the learner to be critical about knowledge and ideas? What rights do students have to expect packaged materials to contain up-to-date and balanced information?

## Program and Course Marketing

This cluster concerns the practices which govern the way educational offerings are made known to potential students and the means used to assure participation in these offerings. Questions related to this cluster include: What is the obligation of the unit or institution offering the programs to present as clearly and completely as possible not only the content and requirements of the program, but also the demands that will be placed on the learner and the traits, characteristics, or skills that are associated with success in programs offered as opportunities for learning at a distance? What obligation does the institution have to clearly describe the degree to which courses and programs can or cannot be "tailored" to the needs and expectations of students?

## Program and Course Administration

This cluster concerns the practices which guide the management of educational offerings including issues related to personnel selection, finance, organization of work, and so on. One subset of practices with special application to learners at a distance concerns the relative autonomy given to the learner by the institution. Questions relevant to this cluster include: To what degree should the institution dictate how long it should take a learner to complete course requirements? To what degree should the institution limit the autonomy of the student in order to increase the chances of success in a course or program? Does the learner have a right to maximum autonomy even if respecting that right decreases the chances of student and program success? What obligation does the insitution have to hire tutors with training or experience in facilitating learning at a distance? Does the institution have an obligation to its employees and other stakeholders to limit student autonomy when necessary to promote administrative efficiency?

## Learner/Facilitator Interaction

This cluster concerns the practices associated with the communication that occurs between the learner and the course facilitator (tutor, instructor, etc.). Questions related to this cluster include: What obligation does the institution and tutor have to monitor the learner's emotional state and to respond when that state is unsettled or otherwise disruptive of the educational process? Are there combinations of technologies that make it more likely that cues to the learner's emotional state will be received? What obligation does the tutor have for encouraging and reinforcing independent behavior on the part of students. If the structure of the course seems to discourage independent behavior, what responsibility does the tutor and institution have for redesigning the course so that its structure encourages independence? What happens in those cases where students do not want to accept greater responsibility for their own learning? Does the learner have a right to be dependent on the educational provider? Is it the obligation of the tutor to promote self-directedness and independence regardless of the wishes of the learner or should the desires of the learner be the paramount criterion to guide the work of the tutor?

### Program. Course. and Learner Evaluation

This cluster concerns the practices related to making qualitative judgements about the performance of learners and the worth or value of educational offerings. Questions related to this cluster include: What obligations do the institution and tutor have to collect evaluative information that corresponds to the intended outcomes of the course or program. even if doing so requires substantial deviation from the "normal" procedures used by the institution and other tutors? What obligation does the distance education unit or institution have to assure that courses and programs are systematically evaluated in ways that result in valid judgements of quality, suitability, effectiveness and efficiency? If a course or program is judged to be deficient in some way, what actions must be taken, who is responsible, and when should they be taken?

## Conclusion

In this exploration of the ethical issues related to providing opportunities for learning at a distance, various questions have been presented. It was not our intention to provide answers to those questions but to increase awareness of their importance. We encourage both practitioners working in the field and those who study the field to consider the questions which are most applicable to their areas and to incorporate an ethical perspective in their work.

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# LA RECONNAISSANCE DES ACQUIS :
# UN DÉFI INTÉRESSANT POUR LA PROCHAINE DÉCENNIE

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**RÉSUMÉ**
La reconnaissance des acquis est un système dont l'idéologie de base et la méthodologie rigoureuse qui en découle permet à des adultes d'identifier ce qu'ils ont appris en dehors de l'école traditionnelle et aux institutions d'évaluer professionnellement ces apprentissages.

**SUMMARY**
Prior Learning Assessment is a system based on an ideology that influences a methodology allowing adults to identify learning acquired outside traditional schools, and enabling academic institutions to assess that learning.

## INTRODUCTION

La reconnaissance des acquis est un système qui permet à des adultes de se faire reconnaitre ce qu'ils ont appris notamment en dehors du milieu scolaire traditionnel.

Pour arriver à comprendre l'idéologie et la méthodologie qui permettent la concrétisation de ce système, il a fallu procéder à un inventaire systématique de ce qui se faisait aux États-Unis jusqu'à maintenant. Ce pays a produit plus de 215 volumes et rapports de recherche, n'offrant toutefois aucune collection ni volume présentant l'idéologie et la méthodologie dans son ensemble.

Ce qui ressort de cette étude des écrits américains (Sansregret, a), c'est que tous les lieux peuvent devenir des occasions d'apprentissage, les résultats d'apprentissage ayant préséance sur les facteurs temps, contenus et méthodes d'apprentissage. Cela fait un grand contraste avec les croyances généralisées voulant par exemple que le temps passé à apprendre ait une grande importance. La reconnaissance des acquis repose donc sur une idéologie fondamentale concernant tous les individus où qu'ils soient dans le monde, et cette idéologie a une influence directe sur la méthodologie à adopter.

## IDÉOLOGIE DE LA RECONNAISSANCE DES ACQUIS

Depuis que le monde existe, les individus, jeunes ou plus âgés, ont fait des apprentissages par essais et erreurs. Or, avec la création de l'école, on a privilégié l'enseignement de la théorie et on l'a réservé aux jeunes. Au fil du temps on en est même venu à penser que les adultes étaient moins capables d'apprendre.

Fort heureusement, Kidd, en 1979, avait démontré le contraire en affirmant que plus on avance en âge, plus on est capable d'apprendre. C'est Kidd également qui nous a sensibilisés au fait qu'une bonne théorie découle d'une bonne pratique.

En 1973, Coleman a affirmé qu'il y a deux manières d'apprendre: la théorie et la pratique, les deux étant aussi valables l'une que l'autre. Il expliquait qu'il y avait des personnes qui apprennent mieux à partir de sources médiatisées, telles la lecture et la poursuite d'études supervisées. D'autres, par contre, préfèrent expérimenter d'abord, puis refaire leurs expériences jusqu'à l'atteinte de résultats satisfaisants.

Or, l'école avait reçu de la société le mandat d'enseigner et d'évaluer des connaissances théoriques acquises par les jeunes en salle de cours. Quelle raison amènerait alors l'école à changer la nature de son mandat?

Un événement important, indépendant de la volonté des individus et des institutions, est le phénomène du changement. Ce phénomène caractérise presque toutes les sociétés sur tous les continents, à en juger par le Premier colloque international sur la reconnaissance des acquis qui s'est tenu à Londres en juin 1987. Le changement bouscule le quotidien et pour s'y adapter les individus doivent constamment faire des apprentissages. Ces apprentissages, ils veulent se les faire reconnaitre pour satisfaire les besoins fondamentaux dont Maslow s'était préoccupé en espérant que tout projet social en tienne compte.

Il apparait dans cette recherche que les adultes ont des raisons de se faire reconnaitre des acquis et que les institutions scolaires ont également des raisons de vouloir répondre à leur demande.

### Raisons exprimées par les adultes

Les raisons qu'ont les adultes de se faire reconnaitre leurs acquis sont de deux principaux ordres :

Obtenir un diplôme
Le diplôme (certificat, attestation ou autre appellation scolaire formelle) constitue une sorte de passeport lorsqu'il est nécessaire de se trouver un emploi, d'obtenir une promotion dans une société où les mutations d'un poste à un autre sont fréquentes.

La technologie exige des apprentissages nouveaux et souvent multiples. On pense au remaniement des entreprises qui ont dû s'informatiser pour affronter le défi de la concurrence. Les syndicats luttent pour maintenir leurs membres dans leurs emplois, sans pouvoir toujours avoir gain de cause, surtout lorsque l'entreprise ferme ses portes.

Donner un sens à sa vie
Dans cette société en changement, il est courant de perdre le sens que l'on avait voulu donner à sa vie, à partir de l'éducation reçue, des valeurs et intérêts exprimés.

Cependant, il n'est pas facile pour chacun de se retrouver, car les journées n'ont toujours que 24 heures, et les besoins fondamentaux tels que le sommeil, la nourriture et la chaleur doivent être comblés en priorité.

La reconnaissance des acquis, de par sa méthodologie propre, oblige une réflexion qui permet non seulement aux adultes de procéder à des choix plus conformes à la manière dont ils désirent vivre le temps présent, mais aussi de planifier les années à venir.

### Raisons exprimées par les institutions scolaires

Les institutions scolaires ont, elles aussi, des raisons de vouloir reconnaitre ces acquis et ces raisons sont de trois ordres :

#### Assurer la fiabilité et la validité de l'accréditation

Les institutions scolaires se rendent bien compte qu'elles ne sont plus les seules à dispenser de la formation. Les employeurs, les corporations professionnelles, les associations bénévoles de même que les syndicats offrent des programmes de formation pour répondre à leurs propres besoins.

Or, se pose alors le problème de savoir où chacun de ces groupes se situe dans l'évaluation des connaissances, parce que les grilles d'évaluation sont toutes différentes les unes des autres. Dans une société où tout change déjà beaucoup, il devient parfois impossible de se faire une idée juste des connaissances et compétences d'une personne.

En reconnaissant les acquis, les institutions scolaires pourraient offrir leur expertise d'évaluateur à tous les autres pourvoyeurs de formation, préservant ainsi un lieu commun pour évaluer les connaissances diverses, assurant alors une validité et permettant aussi un transfert des compétences.

#### Améliorer la situation financière

Les institutions scolaires ont dépensé des sommes considérables à l'amélioration des locaux, des équipments et des conditions de travail de leurs professeurs dans les années '60 et '70.

Or, les sommes jadis perçues sont réduites de façon importante aujourd'hui. On enregistre également beaucoup moins de jeunes à l'école. L'arrivée d'une clientèle adulte, motivée à se faire reconnaitre des acquis, compense les pertes financières.

#### Proposer un nouveau défi aux professeurs

Les professeurs avaient jadis pour mandat d'enseigner aux jeunes et d'évaluer les connaissances acquises à la suite des cours qu'ils avaient dispensés.

Aujourd'hui, les professeurs n'ont pas toujours le contrôle sur l'évaluation, parfois cette tâche est confiée aux ordinateurs ou à quelques personnes mandatées pour le faire, alors que les professeurs eux, se retrouvent dans des rôles d'administrateur, de relationniste ou autre.

Une institution qui implante un système de reconnaissance des acquis permet à ses professeurs de se concentrer sur l'évaluation des connaissances non seulement acquises sous leur supervision, mais également en dehors, ce qui leur apporte un défi nouveau et intéressant.

Des grands principes fondamentaux sont à la base de l'idéologie de la reconnaissance des acquis : il s'agit de la **justice** et de l'**équité**, de l'**éthique** et de la **morale**, puis de la **responsabilité**. Chacun de ces principes touche à la fois et les adultes et les institutions scolaires, les deux parties étant mutuellement liées dans ce projet de société.

## MÉTHODOLOGIE DE LA RECONNAISSANCE DES ACQUIS

Cette idéologie commande une manière de faire linéaire, qui doit être scrupuleusement suivie. Il y a quatre principaux temps dans la manière de procéder pour reconnaitre les acquis, la planification d'un programme, l'identification des apprentissages, l'évaluation des apprentissages, puis l'accréditation.

Le partage des fonctions et tâches se fait entre trois groupes d'intervenants, soit les administrateurs, les conseillers et les évaluateurs (Sansregret, b).

Planification (administrateurs)
La planification consiste pour les administrateurs à prévoir toutes les étapes, règles et politiques du programme et à voir à ce que les intervenants reçoivent la formation adéquate. Il est impérieux de donner une formation aux intervenants et de ne pas confier cette tâche à des amateurs.

Identification (conseillers)
L'étape d'identification exige une réflexion qui s'effectue généralement lors d'un cours sur l'élaboration d'un portfolio (Sansregret, c), enseigné généralement par un conseiller, à l'aide d'un guide conçu à cette fin, le *Portfolio* (Sansregret, d). Ainsi, l'adulte révise ses principales expériences de vie et de travail, identifie ses objectifs de carrière et de formation, identifie et vérifie les apprentissages antérieurs et leur correspondance à des cours crédités, puis prévoit son progamme de formation.

Évaluation (professeurs)
L'évaluation des apprentissages se fait par les professeurs spécialistes des matières à évaluer et, au besoin, par des spécialistes de l'extérieur. Cela permet aux professeurs de veiller à ce que l'évaluation des apprentissages effectuée un peu partout, soit valide et fiable en respectant les critères de base.

Accréditation (administrateurs)
Une fois que les apprentissages rapportés dans les portfolios ont été évalués, les professeurs recommandent l'accréditation. C'est habituellement au bulletin scolaire que la note appropriée est reportée.

Les principes méthodologiques qui doivent être appliqués à ces quatre étapes sont l'**inventaire**, l'**analyse**, la **synthèse** et l'**évaluation**. Ces quatre principes relèvent autant de la responsabilité des intervenants que de celle des adultes.

## CONCLUSION

La reconnaissance des acquis répond à la satisfaction des besoins fondamentaux exprimés par les adultes et par les institutions scolaires, à une époque qui se caractérise de plus en plus par le changement.

Elle est une concrétisation du fait que l'on apprend effectivement dans sa vie dans six principaux temps qui sont : les cours crédités, les cours non crédités, le travail rémunéré et non rémunéré (bénévolat, travail au foyer), les loisirs, voyages et intérêts et aussi lors d'événements marquants.

Pour que ces apprentissages soient reconnus, il faut que l'adulte, aidé si possible d'un conseiller, en fasse la preuve d'abord dans un portfolio, et que des professeurs spécialistes de contenus prononcent, par la suite, des jugements sur la valeur de ces apprentissages. Une équipe d'intervenants spécialistes en éducation des adultes et en reconnaissance des acquis est une condition obligatoire si l'on veut que ce défi de la prochaine décennie soit relevé en respectant la rigueur et le professionalisme inhérent à la mission éducative des institutions scolaires traditionnelles, et cela, partout au Canada.

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# PRIOR LEARNING ASSESSEMENT : AN INTERESTING CHALLENGE FOR THE NEXT DECADE

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## SUMMARY

Prior Learning Assessment is a system based on an ideology that influences a methodology allowing adults to identify learning acquired outside traditional schools and enabling academic institutions to properly assess that learning.

## RÉSUMÉ

La reconnaissance des acquis est un système dont l'idéologie de base et la méthodologie rigoureuse qui en découle permet à des adultes d'identifier ce qu'ils ont appris en dehors de l'école traditionnelle et aux institutions d'évaluer professionnellement ces apprentissages.

## INTRODUCTION

Prior learning assessment is a system allowing adults to receive formal recognition for the learning they have acquired outside traditional school.

A systematic inventory of the existing American literature on the topic had to be done in order to understand the ideology and the methodology behind the implementation of this system. The United States have published approximately 215 volumes and research reports on the subject, but no collection nor volume presenting the ideology and the methodology as a whole concept was found.

The result of this investigation (Sansregret, a) shows that, in order to assess prior learning, academic institutions must rely on a well defined ideology (philosophy). This ideology holds a direct impact on the methodology to be used in the system, and the concretization of these two concepts constitutes a challenge for the next decade.

## THE IDEOLOGY

Since the beginning of times, individuals, young and old, have learned by trial and error. Nevertheless, when school came into being, a specific mandate was bestowed upon them: teach and assess theory to young students. Thus, with time, it became a popular belief that adults were less able to learn than teenagers or adolescents.

In 1979, Kidd broke the myth by saying that the older a person gets, the more he/she is apt to learn. He also said that good theory most often comes from good practice.

In 1973, Coleman stated the existence of two ways to learning: the theoretical and the practical way, and that they were both equally valuable. He explained that some people learn better from reading and supervised studies while others learn better through experimentation until they reach the expected results.

But academic institutions had a social mandate to fulfill: to teach and assess theoritical learning acquired by young students. So, what reason could justify institutions to change their mandate?

A major event, out of the individuals' and institutions' control, took place in nearly everyone's life, and that is CHANGE. This phonemenon is now affecting almost all societies around the world, and was felt as significant enough to be discussed at the First International Conference on Experiential Learning held in London (England) in June 1987. The delegates to that conference agreed that change causes dramatic transformations in the daily life of people and may be perceived as a threat to the ability to satisfy fundamental needs. Maslow was greatly concerned by these fundamental needs and has pinpointed them, hoping that any major social project would take them into account in its structure.

It appears quite obvious that not only adults but also academic institutions must fulfill the needs that result from change. Moreover, it is obvious that learning takes place everywhere, which explains that learning outcomes are more important than the factors of place, time, content or method of learning. This is contrary to the wide-spread belief that, for instance, time spend to learn is of great importance.

**Reasons expressed by adults**

Adults have two major reasons to want their prior learning assessed:

Getting a degree

A degree (certificate, attestation, diploma, etc.) becomes a passport when it is time to look for a job, to get a promotion in a society that can no longer garantee the same job to an individual for an indefinite period of time.

Technology forces individuals to acquire a wide variety of learning. Business and industry have to keep abreast of change in order to cope with competition. Unions who often fight to maintain jobs for their members must also face this situation of change.

Giving one's life a meaning

No one can be sure anymore to live in accordance with the educational patterns and values learned from their childhood.

It is not made easier for someone to find a place for himself in this new changing society where a day still holds only 24 hours and the fundamental needs still have to be attended to, such as sleeping, eating and other priority needs.

Prior learning assessment, through a carefully implemented methodology, allows adults to reflect on the meaning they want to give to their life, the orientation they want to take, professionally or otherwise, from deliberate and planned choices.

## Reasons expressed by academic institutions

Academic institutions, not unlike adults, have needs to fulfill. These needs can be summarized into three categories:

### Ensuring the reliability and validity of accreditation

Institutions are well aware that they are not the sole providers of learning any longer. Employers, corporations, volunteer associations and unions have developped continuing education programs to meet their own specific needs.

Therefore, it becomes more and more difficult to identify the learning of a person, since the criterias for assessment are all different. In a society that is in constant turmoil, it sometimes becomes impossible to know the level of education of a person.

In assessing prior learning, academic institutions could offer their assessment expertise to other providers of education, and establish a common ground to assess various learning skills and guarantee the validity, thus facilitating the transfer of skills to other education programs or to the job market.

### Improving their financial status

Academic institutions found themselves spending considerable amounts of money to improve their facilities and to offer more benefits to their faculty and staff.

The economy being what it is today, there is less money around, and the number of younger students registered has a tendency to decrease, institutions have to look for a new clientele in adult students.

### Suggesting a new challenge to faculty

The traditional mandate given to faculty was that of teaching and assessing the learning that was acquired by young students from their teaching.

Today, faculty does not always have the control over the assessment of learning since it is sometimes assigned to computers or to teams of assessors. The role of faculty has changed and they are now more involved in administrative and public relation tasks.

When implementing a system to assess prior learning, academic institutions offer their faculty a new challenge to assess the skills acquired outside their supervision.

The investigation of the American literature leads us to extract five important basic principles governing the assessment of prior learning: **Justice** and **Equity**, **Ethics** and **Morale** and **Responsibility**. Each of these principles directly concern both parties involved in the process of assessing prior learning: the adults as well as the academic institutions.

## THE METHODOLOGY

The ideology explained earlier can be followed by a specific methodology divided into four steps: Planning of the program, Identification of learning, Assessment of learning and Accreditation.

The assessment of prior learning program has definite roles and tasks to be divided among three groups: administrators, counsellors and assessors (Sansregret, b).

### Planning of the program (administrators)

Planning of the program constitues the primary task of administrators who must plan in detail every step, and ascertain that the different parties involved (themselves, counsellors and assessors) receive proper training. It is therefore extremely important to plan faculty development programs.

### Identification of learning (counsellors)

This identification requires time to think and it is highly recommended that it be done within a course on portfolio development (Sansregret, c), generally taught by a counsellor, using a portfolio handbook (Sansregret, d). Thus, adults make a review of their life and work experiences, identify career and educative objectives, identify and verify prior learning and its correspondance to credit courses, and plan their educational program.

### Assessment of learning (faculty assessors)

The assessment of the learning gathered in a portfolio, is done by faculty specialized in the field of learning to be assessed. When needed, outside experts may be called in. Assessors, because of their expert judgment, ensure the quality and reliability and assessment.

### Accreditation (administrators)

Accreditation of prior learning takes place after the recommendations from faculty. It consists of reporting the assessment on a school transcript, just as any other learning, with the appropriate passing marks.

The methodological principles behind this process are **Inventory, Analysis, Synthesis** and **Assessment**. These four principles must be met by students as well as by academic institutions.

## CONCLUSION

Prior learning assessment offers an answer to satisfying the needs of adults and of academic institutions who both live the phenomenon of change.

It is recognized that anyone can learn at six different times in his life and from various contexts: credit courses, non credit courses, paid and non paid work (volunteer, homemaking etc), leisure and trips, and marker events.

In order to assess prior learning, it is most important that every adult makes the proof of evidence of what he knows that is of academic value (demonstrated in a portfolio), and that faculty specialized in the learning to be assessed makes proper judgement on the value of that learning.

A team of specialists in adult education, skillfully trained in prior learning assessment, is the key to the success and integrity of the program. It will also ensure that this challenge be met with professionnalism, here and everywhere in Canada during the next decade.

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# SUPERVISING AND MENTORING: NEW DIMENSIONS TO AN OLD PARTNERSHIP

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Le professeur débutant, où trouve-t-il de l'assistance? Est-ce que l'aide s'arrête après que le superviseur termine ses procédés d'observations formelles? On trouve maintenant que le superviseur peut devenir mentor s'il peut partager son expertise dans une manière assez incidentale et spontanée.*

Where does the new teacher find help? Does help stop after a supervisor terminates formal observation procedures? New findings suggest that incidental helping skills turn the supervisor into a mentor.

The notion of how supervisors can help their novice teachers or interns in a mentoring way has been conceptualized in the literature through frameworks of assessment, competence, and professionalization. Within these frameworks, the context of supervision subsumes three categories of help: One category represents formative assessments made by beginning teachers of their supervisors; a second category gives information with regard to those competencies desired in the performance of the task of supervision; while a third category describes the role of the supervisor in the task of recommending the novice teacher for the permanent teaching license. Frameworks of help and their concomitant categories can claim, indeed, to be helpful to the novice if the particular components of each framework appear within the rubric of aiding, assisting, encouraging, or motivating the intern in the improvement of classroom teaching.

The assessment framework that constitutes the helping relationship is a measure of quantifying and qualifying either the cognitive or the affective characteristics of a supervisor. From the framework of assessment emerge categories of qualifications needed to fulfill the role of supervisor, of guidelines with expectations for supervisors to follow, of attributes of the personality of the supervisor, and instruments for encoding the perceptions of the performance of supervisors in their mentoring capacity.

A second framework, competency, incorporates the image of an individual who is specifically trained in the skills of supervision. Competency implies the application of supervisory skills in order to facilitate the ability of beginning teachers to improve upon their teaching performances in the classroom. Several categories of supervisory behavior related to the framework of competency appear to foster a mentorship between supervisor and novice. The role of liaison between teacher preparation institutions and the school in which the novice teacher is located, the link between the theories expounded during pre-service experiences and the circumstances confronted during actual classroom episodes, and the interpreter of the plans for preparing and instituting climates amenable to change and creativity recommended by other instructional leaders are the behaviors demonstratd by supervisors who convert the framework of competency into the practice of mentoring.

A third framework, professionalization, extends the function of help that a supervisor provides as mentor to the realm of the philosophical and the legal. Professionalization represents the end stage of the mentoring process; novice teachers are encouraged to evaluate their own abilities and to clarify their own professional goals. This framework constitutes the application of components which directly impinge upon the tasks of certifying (licensing) beginning teachers to assume a permanent teaching position in a public school.

The act of evaluating and self-evaluating classroom performance is composed of both formative and summative elements. Formatively, the supervisor as mentor creates a design for integrating the evaluations of outside authorities (i.e., department heads, curiculum directors) and the self-evaluations of novice teachers. The process can be described as an examination, induced by the supervisor, of the progress made by beginning teachers in assuming increasing levels of responsibility within the instructional environment of the teacher.

Ultimately, a mutually agreed upon plan for developing skills in formative self-evaluation will materialize, consisting of the following procedures: Describe patterns of teaching behaviors from theory to be assimilated into practice; infer from and act upon patterns of strength or weakness disclosed by the evaluations of outside authorities; implement new strategies created for reinforcing strengths or ameliorating weaknesses. The summative outcome of this plan is represented in recommendation for permanent certification (licensure) to teach.

An instrument designed to assess the helping role portrayed by the supervisor as mentor was constructed with thirty-two variables. Each variable reflects an aspect of one of the three frameworks of help described above, and the administration of it to groups of novice teachers measures the extent of help that supervisors provide. In the end, an analysis of responses to each of the variables demonstrates the effectiveness of mentoring within the frameworks of assessment, competency, and professionalization. The variables included in the instrument are:

1. Relating socio-economic backgrounds of students to appropriate pedagogical strategies
2. Suggesting strategies for classroom management
3. Having had three to five years of appropriate school teaching experience

4. Being explicit with criticisms about an observed lesson
5. Suggesting relevant ways to improve teaching strategies
6. Demonstrating general knowledge of the subject matter
7. Being supportive
8. Sharing resources upon request
9. Observing actual teaching regularly
10. Encouraging self-evaluation by novice teachers
11. Noting interaction between teacher and pupis
12. Encouraging experimentation
13. Having a positive influence on classroom climate during visits
14. Conferring with teachers after each visit
15. Understanding the feelings of teachers
16. Creating feeling of comfort during conferences
17. Including another observer during some visits
18. Effectively communicating policies of licensing agencies
19. Showing concern for intellectual growth
20. Consulting with outside authorities
21. Encouraging independence
22. Demonstrating new teaching techniques
23. Identifying and assisting in problem solving
24. Arranging for opportunities of greater responsibility
25. Recognizing the individuality of novice teachers
26. Establishing a climate of open exchange
27. Keeping detailed notes of observations
28. Distinguishing between actual and desirable performance
29. Relating observations objectively
30. Supplementing anecdotal feedback with video and audio equipment input
31. Evaluating at regular intervals
32. Clarifying the goals of a professional educator.

All of the preceeding findings suggest that a conventional cycle of supervision circumscribes a procedure within which a provision for mentorship is formally located. However, the stresses of a supervisory episode can mitigate against the assimilation of helpful suggestions that are advanced. More recent findings, culled from conversations between supervisors and their novice teachers, denote that another source of help emanates from the skill exercised by supervisors who are perceived to have the ability to share their knowledge incidentally and spontaneously, doing so under conditions that encourage teachers to be receptive. This second domain of mentorship is a proactive construct, distinct from the formal aspects of assessment, competency, and professionalization, and it can be characterized as the domain of incidental helping skills.

Incidental helping skills consist of an array of attributes demonstrated by clinical supervisors, extending beyond the scope of process skills related to a formal observation. In effect, these are skills principally of an interpersonal nature that enhance the rapport between supervisor and beginning teacher. In addition, these can be skills of an emotional nature that transmit encouragement and support for a job well done or skills of a pedagogical nature that convey functional ideas for immediate use in the classroom of the novice teacher.

For two years, dialogue between novice teachers and their supervisors has been collected and analyzed. Anecdotal inferences from this documentation advance the notion that a mentoring relationship derives from the knowledge that supervisors have regarding their own ability to facilitate the role of mentor. This self-awareness represents the focal point from which the incidental helping skills emanate. In essence, anecdotal findings are saying that before supervisors can help novice teachers fulfill their role as teachers, supervisors must be secure in their roles as teachers themselves. They must be comfortable, and be perceived to be cmfortable, with the responsibility of instructional leadership entrusted to them by the educational community.

Dialogue continues to imply that a clearly defined self-image of the supervisor as mentor is articulated. The supervisor/mentor views oneself as a facilitator of a group of talented, skilled educators, devoted to increasing their strengths and undercutting ther weaknesses, all for the purpose of delivering the best possible kind of education to the pupils entrusted to them. The supervisor/mentor is trusting, open and eager to listen as well as to lead, and capable of establishing bonds of trust with the novice.

In terms of process, the implementation of incidental helping skils appears to be perceived as an invitation for teachers to share in the responsibility of the mission of education. Novice teachers acknowledge that they detect that they have been engaged in a collaborative approach to education in which their collective talents and strengths are utilized for the educational welfare of all concerned. Anecdotal data conclude that a mentoring relationship nurtures a sense of love and esteem, and an awareness that beginning teachers are dedicated to their vocation as educators. Frequently, the interaction of a mentorship results not so much in the analysis of the theory of a supervisor, but more often in the reference to particular instances of the exemplars of an incidental helping skill.

The experiences of one novice teacher in particular vividly illustrate the benefits derived from the mentoring process. This teacher notes that in her first instructional setting she was directing her class to proceed out of the classroom to the gymnasium. The building principal was apprehensive that day, because an important visitor was present, and the principal felt compelled to make a positive impression. However, a delay in the schedule left the novice and her pupils stranded in the hallway, and the principal began to invoke, insensitively, the rules for decorum in front of the entire class and other teachers, ordering the pupils and teacher back into her classroom until further notice.

On the other hand, in another setting, another principal managed to demonstrate a mastery of the implementation of incdental helping skills. On this occasion, the beginning teacher was about to engage her class in an activity that was considered to be unusual, but valuable. The supervisor, always available and concerned, expressed her understanding of the purpose of the activity, but also voiced some reservations about its methodology. The novice teacher recalled that the the supervisor took her aside, but did so inobtrusively, calmly, and charitably. Her mentoring style quickly and effectively directed the teacher to understand that the approach to this activity may not be the best procedure under the circumstances, and that an alternative approach was easy to introduce.

Later in the day, the complete rationale for substituting one teaching strategy for another was provided. The supervisor and novice were able to talk together alone, and consequently she was able to accept the advice in a collegial manner. Not only was the advice of the supervisor entirely received, but in the ensuing conversation her supervisor was clearly open to receive some suggestions from the novice teacher, as well.

The results of this study suggest that a mentorship between supervisors and novice teachers is established and enhanced through effective communication, and mentoring supercedes supervising. Two observable domains of help appear to facilitate the evolution of a mentoring relationship. First, an observable and quantifiable construct emerges from the frameworks of assessment, competency, and professionalization. Second, a spontaneous and proactive construct materializes anecdotally in the appearance and implementation of incidental helping skills.

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# SCHON, EPISTEMOLOGY, AND PROFESSIONAL PRACTICE

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This paper is a critique of Donald Schon's proposed epistemology of professional practice, especially as it is used to inform educational endeavours. It suggests that Schon's "design-like" conception fails to recognize the multi-faceted nature of professional practice, reducing a range of normative issues to the aesthetic only.

Cet article constitue une critique de l'épistémologie concernant les pratiques professionelles proposée par Donald Schon, spécialement comme elle est employée pour éclairer les démarches éducatives. Il est suggéré que la conception "design-like" de Schon ne réussit pas à rendre compte de la nature multidimensionnelle des practiques professionnelles, réduisant une gamme de questions normatives au seul niveau esthétique.

Donald Schon's project is to replace "technical rationality," which is what he takes to be the prevailing epistemology of professional practice, with a new "design-like" conception. Before considering Schon's proposed alternative, it will be useful to review the position he is criticizing.

At the risk of caricature, technical rationality is a monolithic, or unified, conception of rationality. It holds that there is one fundamental level of description - that of abtract theory. Knowledge about particular cases is derived from the application of general laws. The more general the law, the higher it is in the hierarchy of knowledge. This epistemological hierarchy is paralleled by a division of intellectual labour. Researchers and theorists form the top level. Professionals who apply theories to practical problems are in the middle, while workers who follow rules and routines, without necessarily understanding the relevant theory, form the base.

Another important feature of technical rationality is that the knowledge generated by theorists is thought to be objective or disinterested. This purported objectivity is supposed to be a product of the exclusion of personal or ideological bias from theoretical inquiry. This notion is, at least in part, a holdover from positivist philosophy of science, according to which meaningful statements are thought to be limited to those which are true by definition (analytic claims) and those which can be verified directly and unambiguously by observation (empirical claims). Thus, normative (or value) claims are ruled out of the realm of that which can be asserted on rational grounds. Typically, they are reduced to statements of fact about attitudes. All meaningful issues tend, under this understanding of rationality, to become technical problems - problems about how best to achieve one's purposes. The purposes themselves, being value laden, fall outside of the orbit of rational evaluation. Incidentally, many philosophers have pointed out that the the very general postulates in which the positivist position is framed are also meaningless statements, according to the above mentioned strictures. The result is that positivist views of rationality, including technical rationality are self-refuting if taken as complete theories of human rationality.

So, to the extent that Schon is right that technical rationality continues to hold sway in professions and professional schools, we ought to join him in searching for alternatives. While positivism (and related theories such as emotivism in ethics and behaviourism in psychology) are currently out of intellectual favour, I think Schon's project is important because many of the doctrines of positivistic theory linger on as background assumptions which underpin our educational and other social practices.

Schon constructs his alternative epistemology of professional practice by noting that technical rationalist approaches leave out the artistry of the professions, failing to recognize their "design-like" aspects. Professionals do not simply apply "covering laws" to problematic situations, as technical rationality suggests. Schon provides many examples of real life practice in which the analysis performed by experienced practitioners goes well beyond any existing laws. Drawing especially on cases involving artistic products and performances, Schon emphasizes the "tacit" dimension - the extent to which the capacity to perform competently outstrips the capacity to explain the performance. He points out the parallels between professional practice and the task of the artist or designer, arguing that these parallels suggest that the education of professionals ought to be modelled on that of artists. Specifically, education for professional practice ought to use the model of the "reflective practicum" as exemplified by the design-studio or master's class for musicians.

Consider this argument. In Schon's words:

> Artists make things and are, in this sense, designers.... Professional practitioners are also makers of artifacts. Lawyers build cases, arguments, agreements, and pieces of legislation. Physicians construct diagnoses and regimens of testing and treatment. Planners construct spatial plans, policies, regulatory arrangements and systems for the orchestration of contending interests (1987, p.42).

The question we should ask is, "Does this mean anything for the epistemology (or educational strategies) of the professions?" Notice that we could continue Schon's list by saying that bees build hives, photocopiers create copies, and we all make mistakes. My point is that designing, constructing, and making, are common to (yet not restricted to) any number of human activities. The fact that these words are used to describe professional activities does not single out the professions as a particular epistemic or educational category.

This failure to identify epistemological criteria which uniquely identify the professions is hardly surprising, even if it is rather damaging to Schon's thesis. Once we escape the unified hierarchy of knowledge posited by technical rationality, and thereby undermine the implied rationale for the parallel division of intellectual labour, there is no distinctive epistemological role for professionals to fulfill. The professions may be a significant category from the point of view of sociological, political, or economic analysis, but not from the standpoint of any unique relation to theory or knowledge. Professionals, be they architects, psychiatrists, lawyers, or educators, learn to be competent in their fields of practice through some combination of explicit instruction, observation of competent performance by others, and practice, be it guided or independent. This is also true of cooks, secretaries, carpenters, theoretical researchers, armchair philosophers, parents, card players, and so on.

If Schon's argument holds for the professions, it ought to hold equally well for all sorts of human activities - that is, the reflective practicum ought to serve as a model for education in general. Common sense would suggest, however, that the model of the reflective practicum has been developed for use in those areas in which it is particularly effective. Virtually all of Schon's examples successful practice, or "reflection-in-action," are drawn from areas in which success is judged primarily according to aesthetic standards, most notably in architectural design and performance oriented music. I suggest that these are somewhat special cases in that concepts, rule-formulations, and explicit theory have a peculiarly limited role in the area of aesthetics. As Wittgenstein said:

> Thus to study esthetic judgment, one must concentrate not on the words "good" or "beautiful" ... but on the occasions on which they are said - on the enormously complicated situation in which the esthetic experience has a place, in which the expression has a negligible place (cited in Pitkin, 1972, p. 224.)

As educators, we should decide whether what we are trying to accomplish in any particular situation is significantly like the educational aims implied by Schon's examples. Are we operating in anything like the same sort of educational context? It is important to note that Schon's examples are mostly of exemplary teachers working individually over extended periods of time with exemplary students on aesthetic projects. For better or worse, most of us are not working towards those ends or under those conditions. Further, Schon's examples convey the atmosphere of a cloistered community - a small group of educators and budding professionals pursuing their interests in relative isolation. They develop their own specialized languages which are largely unintelligible to the novice or outsider. For all its attractions, we ought to ask whether such a situation is what we want to aim at, either as an educational strategy or as a model for practice.

I suggest that there is a systematic flaw in Schon's analysis of epistemology and education with regard to educational practice. Schon wants to replace what I have called a monolithic approach to the understanding of rationality with an alternative. By choosing a set of examples which emphasize a certain sort of epistemological problem, that of the relative inexplicability of competence at aesthetic endeavours, he demonstrates the inadequacy of of the technical rationalist perspective. That does not entitle him to assert that his particular set of examples exemplify good practice in general, or provide a general epistemology for the professions, any more than selected set of examples of structural engineering problems could justify a technical rationalist approach.

What neither Schon, nor the quasi-mythic technical rationalist, come to terms with, is the complex of political/social/ethical issues which form part of the background for professional, and other human, practices. Schon's critique is sound insofar as it displays the poverty of a technical rationalist model in explaining all human rationality as if it involved the application of abstract theory to real life problems. But this approach does not simply ignore the artistic and design-like aspects of human endeavours: it also fails to capture purposive nature of human inquiry and the social dimension of human knowledge.

Inquiry, be it practical, professional, theoretic, or whatever, is from some perspective. That is, it is undertaken by specific individuals with specific histories, interests, conceptual schemes, etc. Schon, of course, knows this as well as any of us. But he seems to fail to apply it to the problem at hand. We can agree with him that virtually all practices, including the professions, have an aesthetic dimension. Most also have a theoretic dimension. Also an ethical one. This is pretty obvious, especially in Schon's chosen area of inquiry - the professions. But Schon's treatment of ethical issues is little better that that of the technical rationalist (who reduces ethical standards to facts about people's attitudes or dispositions).

In one of the few passages in Schon's books where he refers explicitly to ethical issues, he focusses on a very narrow range:

> I say little here about wisdom in response to ethical dilemmas of practice in bureaucratic institutions where professionals spend increasing amounts of time. Nevertheless ... I am concerned with institutional forces that restrict discretionary freedoms to the exercise of wisdom and artistry alike. And I believe that education for reflective practice, though not a sufficient condition for wise or moral practice, is certainly a necessary one (1987, p. xiii).

Notice that this focusses on the interests of the professional. Professionals want to be free to exercise their judgment in ethical and other matters. But nowhere is the issue of the increasing power of professionals and their institutions called into question. Nowhere does Schon critique the relationship between the positivistic conception of rationality, the intellectual division of labour (which is sustained and reinforced by professional self-interest), and the socio-economic categories which are related to this division of labour. Once these issues are raised, it becomes apparent that a full-fledged critique of technical rationality involves the critique of social structures including economic, political, and legal relations which are, in part, a heritage of the same culture that produced technical rationality.

There is an interesting connection between rationality and ethics which underpins my assertion that a revised theory of rationality demands a reassessment of our social relations. At least as far back as the Greeks, the notion of rationality has been seen to be linked with debate amongst an informed community of equals, even though the Greeks were quite happy to exclude most people from that community of equals. The notion was revived by Kant and has resurfaced in more modern formulations constructed by American pragmatists such as Pierce and Dewey, and by critical theorists Jurgen Habermas and Karl-Otto Apel. This is the idea of rationality as that which would be accepted by community of language users who were free from coersion or the threat of coersion. This notion of "communicative rationality" makes explicit the importance of a community of individuals who treat each other with respect for the enterprise of being rational. Given that professionals and the institutions they work for (and often control) contribute to social inequity and dis-empowerment, often in pursuit of professional interests, an adequate reassesment of the epistemology of professional practice necessarily involves a critique of existing social relations.

To sum up the argument so far, Schon's project of overturning the prevailing epistemology of professional practice is found to be worthwhile. Unfortunately, from my point of view, Schon has attempted this revision without questioning the existing social order in which professional practice takes place. Though he draws our attention to examples of practice which are not well accounted for within technical rationalist approaches, he fails to show that his epistemology or educational recommendations are an adequate replacement for the prevailing conception. By noticing that the prevailing conception excludes a whole range of value issues, not only aesthetic ones, we are pointed in the right direction to develop a richer and more inclusive conception. The link between ethical human relations and rationality highlights a set of issues which must be faced in the ongoing construction of a revised epistemology.

Armed with this kind of a general understanding of the project, we ought to give up on the notion of a unified epistemology of practice, emphasizing instead the variety of human practices and the need to keep in mind the varied purposes which motivate involvement in these practices. For those of us fortunate enough to be involved with the education of adults, we can take advantage of the fact that our students are equipped to enter into the ongoing reconstruction of our epistemological theories and our social structures as full fledged participants.

Notes:

I would like to thank the Faculty of Education for their support in making possible this paper's presentation and note that some of the ideas in this article were first developed in a previously published article of mine which is listed below.

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# INSTRUCTIONAL DESIGN CONSIDERATIONS IN TELEWRITER APPLICATIONS TO DISTANCE EDUCATION

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## Abstract/Resume

A variety of university courses delivered by telewriter enhanced audio teleconferencing are described. Instructional issues are explored in an attempt to guide instructional design decisions for users of similar distance delivery technology.

Cette étude se propose de décrire une variété de cours universitaires dispensés par un système de téléconférence assorti d'un téléscripteur ("telewriter"). Y sont examinés certains problèmes propres à l'enseignement dans le cadre d'une élaboration de programmes mettant à profit une même technologie à distance.

This paper describes an audio teleconferencing system enhanced with a microcomputer based telewriting system and examines its application in the distance delivery of university courses. The paper examines how the technology was actually applied in the delivery of a variety of courses to illustrate the versatility of the technology and demonstrate the range of instructional designs possible with the telewriter. The instructional strategies used are described and we also explore the interrelationship between the instructional strategies and the subject matter.

## Telewriting - Enhanced Audio Teleconferencing

In Alberta the audio teleconferencing system allows institutions to deliver courses to about 80 centres. The strength of audio-teleconferencing is undoubtedly its two-way communication capability and for this reason Garrison (1985) classifies such technology as third generation technological innovation in distance education. However, it is not able to support visual instructional interaction. At present, the most versatile and cost-effective way to redress this deficiency is with a microcomputer based telewriting system (Gilcher and Johnson, 1988).

The telewriting system used in this study supports simultaneous aural and visual communication. The system uses a graphics tablet and keyboard on which the instructor can write or type a message which is transmitted immediately together with audio communication along a single telephone line. At all of the centres in the system, students can receive handwritten and/or typed text and/or graphic messages on a colour monitor. Each centre also has the capability of altering images that have been sent out, using a cursor (or pen) to point out features on these images, or creating and transmitting images themselves. All messages and images may be viewed simultaneously in all centres in real-time. The system uses Optel Communications' Telewriter II - PC's using an IDM XT PC. A more complete description of the system can be found in Shale and Garrison (1988).

## Instructional Applications

A variety of university courses have been delivered using the telewriting system described here: statistics, nursing issues, staff development for teachers and introductory writing. Two courses in preparation are also described, one a micro computers in education course and the other a teacher in-service course on teaching handwriting skills. A structured interview was used with the instructors to ascertain the instructional strategies used. This section describes the instructors' considerations in working out their approaches.

1. The statistics course was designed for delivery as a home study course. It consisted of correspondence style print materials. Students enrolling in the telewriter delivered course received these materials and, hypothetically could have done the course on their own just as the home study students would do. The telewriter system was intended to support the students rather than serve as the primary mechanism for delivering course content.

   The instructor indicated the telewriter would be extremely helpful in: representing formulae and symbols; organizing and displaying the volume of detail involved in statistical analyses; showing distributions, and working through problems. Although students had the material in print form, it is difficult to work a group through such material because of the complexity in referencing and describing it.

   This instructor relied extensively on previously prepared screens, partly because statistics deals with large volumes of data and computations and enumerating everything in real time is awkward and time consuming. A major instructional strategy was to work out solutions on screens that would over-lay so that students would have to think about the next computational step and could be called upon to fill in the missing entries. Partly this strategy was meant to facilitate interaction. Because of limited display area, screens prepared in advance could be better laid out and sequenced. Screens done spontaneously were crowded and hard to read. Moreover, when a screen was full and the problem had to be continued it was essential to carry over critical information. The pen and pad were used extensively for indicating or underscoring important items. It was also used frequently to do unstructured elaborations of various points or to draw illustrations. Students were able to use this feature as well and occasionally were asked to write answers on the screen.

   Interaction with students was attempted by the usual question and answer strategy as well as by having students display answers on the screen using the pen and electronic pad. In an evaluation of the course, students indicated they were dissatisfied with the limited interaction that occurred. However, they clearly came to the sessions poorly prepared to discuss material (many students fell far off the standard pace, as indicated by their assignments) and neither asked questions nor responded very well to the instructor's questions. Students were also invited to phone if they wished individualized treatment but they rarely did so. The instructor felt the unsatisfactoriness of the effort to use the technology interactively was due partly to the unpreparedness of the students, partly to the and nature of the material and partly to poor instructional strategies. Solving problems interactively seemed problematic because the instructor was faced with spending disproportionate amounts of time on some parts and none on other parts (also, some group lead-in seemed unavoidable because students were unevenly prepared and could not participate without having mastered a body of basic information). In addition most solutions required lots of computation and display space on the screen. For most problems, students would have needed training in how to use the system software. The instructor also indicated the heavy reliance on previously prepared screens introduced quite a rigid structure into the sessions. However, the demands of the material were such that previously prepared screens were essential.

In summary, the instructor reported: the system requires a lot of work in advance preparation and organization; technical glitches were a constant worry and impediment; special and creative strategies are required to facilitate visual and aural interaction.

The instructor felt the system could have been used more effectively, particularly for student participation. One stratagem suggested was to use each telewriter session as a "problems" lab. Selected problems would be chosen to incorporate as many concepts as possible. Screens could be designed to facilitate student response. The major advantage would be that students would have to come prepared, they would have to participate actively, sufficient time would be available to complete the task, and "covering the course" would not be an objective of the telewriter sessions.

2. The microcomputer applications in special education course is currently in preparation. Although little can be said about the success of the instructional strategies in this course, they warrant description and comment.

This course also has considerable printed instructional material. There are two texts, selected because they are pedagogically oriented. Some of the telewriter session time will be elaboration and discussion of content. However, the sessions will be used mostly for student practice software packages and in writing applications of their own. Students will receive instruction from the instructor, on-line, using previously prepared screens. Students will go off-line to use the telewriter PC's as microcomputers to run the actual software packages. Students will have worksheets to follow and the voice component of the system will still be there so that students can talk with the instructor.

Many of the previously prepared screens are reproductions of what students will see when they run the actual applications software. The instructor will execute a particular application and the output would be displayed on the screen. The instructor could "capture" this screen image using the grabber function of the telewriter to create a screen image. This image is a picture of the output which can be called up and displayed to students. This allows the instructor to refer explicitly to what students see when they actually run the application. The instructor considered that this display facility and the capability to jump from screen to screen made the telewriter essential.

A software package under development, called "joint runner" will allow the instructor to execute a program and have what appears on his screen appear simultaneously on all other screens. All centres will be able to view the real-time execution of the software. This would obviate the contrived nature of static screen displays and facilitate interaction.

This instructor was also aware of the problem of too much prior structuring of the course around previously prepared screens. However, the complexity and volume of material to be displayed made it essential to prepare screens in advance. Consequently responding spontaneously in a session will be difficult. This puts a premium on anticipating problem areas accurately. The instructor is over-preparing material to ensure that all contingencies will be covered. He reported that course preparation time was substantial.

3. The issues in nursing course was cut short because of technical problems. Nonetheless, the instructor's view and expectations of the technology are informative. She decided to use the telewriter system because: i) it had potential for actively engaging the students in the course; ii) it would enrich the learning environment by using both the visual and aural senses; and iii) the technology served instrumental as well as instructional purposes (ie. it provided affective support to the learning environment, one example was its use to display a map with each student being located by name).

   This instructor used the technology mostly to support interaction, and only slightly as an overhead projector. Students brainstormed by filling in charts summarizing the pros and cons of particular issues (which might also be enunciated by them). Responses were to be transmitted by the pen and pad. The instructor indicated this approach worked much better than it would have orally. The students liked the control they had over the communication.

   Both the instructor and the students enjoyed the telewriter system and were disappointed the course could not continue (the instructor reverted to teleconferencing mode). Unlike the previous two instructors, this one thought there was ample flexibility in using previously prepared screens.

4. The writing course consisted of one-third grammar, one-third writing paragraphs and one-third comprehension. In the grammar section, the instructor administered a diagnostic test to the students and going over it was a major instructional event. Technical support staff prepared a set of screens which displayed the test and she and the students worked through it together. The pen and pad were used extensively.

   For the writing practice, the instructor used screens to illustrate various principles in composition. She also had the students write paragraphs collectively (using the keyboard) by having each supply a sentence. Discussion occurred as each sentence was added. The instructor was pleasantly surprised with how effectively this worked. Later, when students produced their own paragraphs, the instructor displayed examples on the screen for discussion.

   Little use was made of the system for the comprehension part of the course which was aurally based in any event. However, the instructor felt she had to make use of the technology because it was there. This instructor mentioned that a FAX facility would have rounded out the telewriting system. Student assignments were slow and sporadic in arriving through the mail and because several days of lead time were necessary to transpose assignment work to prepared screens, lessons based on the assignments were often compromised. This instructor also remarked on the considerable additional effort required to offer a course.

5. In the staff development for teachers course, the instructor proposed to use an approach similar to that in the nursing issues course. Prepared screens were charts that students would complete with elaborative points added successively. Students were to work as a group at their respective sites to prepare a screen containing their collaborative response which would be transmitted to each other site. These transmissions would be "locked" on display through the central site and other responses would be added in an overlay fashion. This required a level of training of students and site coordinators that defeated the intention. Once again the substantial amount of preparation time required was mentioned.

There is one other course currently at a preliminary stage of development that demonstrates the potential of audiographic teleconferencing. It is a teacher in-service course on teaching handwriting to school children. Because of the emphasis placed on pencil/pen grip, and position of hands and paper, a picture is truly worth a thousand words. Illustrations are being prepared on screens using the system's graphics capability. The graphics feature will also be used extensively to illustrate the forming of letters.

## Discussion

The following instructional issues arise from the experiences described here:

- using the telewriter requires considerable effort and advance planning.
- instructors found new effective ways to use the telewriter in distance delivery.
- the "best" interaction occurred when students were able to use the technology actively as a tool in their participation. The least effective occurred when student were simply asked if they had any questions.
- the students were intimidated by the equipment and the simplest way of responding (pen and pad, typing with keyboard) were best.
- perceived advantages of the telewriter system were: it obviated the need for all the extraneous cues and elaboration required in voice-only teleconferencing; it simplified references to things that had a symbolic form (such as math formulae); and as a system, it offered students a visual form of instructional communication in addition to the oral.
- the effectiveness of the telewriter and various instructional strategies clearly varies according to the nature of the subject matter.
- the instructors considered that the care and attention required to offer a course using the telewriter improved the quality of instruction.

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# LES CONNAISSANCES LIÉES A LA TRANSFORMATION DU CADRE DE RÉFÉRENCE DANS LA DÉMARCHE FÉMINISTE

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Résumé: La démarche féministe a été étudiée dans le but de connaître les connaissances qui jalonnent le parcours de cette transformation de cadre de référence. La dimension collective de la situation des femmes ressort comme étant le savoir fondamental qui étaie le changement.

Summary: The reseach wanted to isolate the knowledge acquired through a feminist transformation. The results demonstrate that the collective dimension of the situation of women was the fundamental knowledge generating the change.

La recherche sur la démarche féministe part du changement qui s'acccompagne de multiples connaissances, vécu par les femmes quand elles prennent conscience de la situation des femmes. Elle a voulu cerner quelles sont ces connaissances. La démarche féministe a alors été définie comme étant le pas fait dans la doctrine qui sous-tend l'action des femmes dans leurs luttes pour la transformation des rapports hommes-femmes et de l'ordre établi. En utilisant les écrits de Colby (1978), de Home (1978), de Posluns (1981) et de Mezirow (1978), elle est décrite comme une transformation qui contient trois phases: une de prise de conscience, une d'acquisition de connaissances et une d'action politique ou sociale. Avec la théorie du changement critique de Jack Mezirow (1981, 1985a, 1985b), la transformation de la démarche féministe devient un changement de cadre de référence qui est constitué notamment de connaissances, de croyances et de valeurs. La connaissance, pour sa part, est définie comme étant le contenu qui définit la chose connue et le savoir comme un ensemble de connaissances plus ou moins systématisées, acquises par une activité mentale soutenue suivie (Lalande, 1972). L'analyse de Thomas Luckmann (1983) sur le "sens commun, la science et la spécialisation du savoir" sert d'arrière-plan à une compréhension des connaissances et du savoir dans leurs perspectives sociales. La conceptualisation de la recherche a conduit à une analyse de la socialisation des filles, période pré-démarche dans laquelle les filles acquièrent leur premier cadre de référence. Il appert que celui-ci est marqué par l'absence de connaissances et de savoir sur les femmes. Le caractère masculin de l'éducation communique un non-pouvoir et un non-savoir des femmes (Solar, 1985). Les grandes dimensions du premier cadre de référence reçu pendant la période de socialisation sont celles des rôles sexuels et sociaux, du pouvoir et de la participation des femmes dans le monde, et du savoir.

Des données qualitatives ont été recueillies par le biais d'une entrevue ouverte auprès de dix militantes féministes nées sur une période de 33 ans, entre 1925 et 1958 et qui ne corroborent pas l'image stéréotypée de féministes scolarisées issues de milieu socio-économique favorisé. Les données ont été traitées par analyse de contenu à l'aide d'une grille construite en utilisant les trois dimensions constitutives du premier cadre de référencejumelées à une lecture des revendications du mouvement des femmes et des écrits sur les femmes. Dans cette grille, les rôles sexuels et sociaux ont pour sous-catégories: l'identité (perception et connaissance de soi), le corps (image, sexualité...), les rapports aux autres. La participation et le pouvoir des femmes dans le monde se retrouvent dans les mondes politique, juridique, socio-culturel, économique, du travail, religieux, des institutions (école, médias...) et des organisations (associations, groupes...); et le savoir dans les connaissances, les croyances et valeurs.

Le traitement des données a fait émerger des sous-thèmes à l'intérieur des sous-catégories. Une seule nouvelle catégorie portant sur la démarche féministe même a été générée. Parmi les catégories d'analyse, celle dans laquelle se retrouvent le plus d'énoncés est celle du pouvoir et de la participation dans le monde, suivie des rôles sexuels et sociaux et, enfin, du savoir. Au niveau des sous-catégories, c'est celle de l'identité qui reçoit le plus d'énoncés, suivi de celle sur les connaissances. Celles où les changements sont les plus importants sont, par ordre de présentation, celles de l'identité, des connaissances, des croyances et des valeurs. Celles où ce sont les connaissances qui sont les plus importantes, sont celles du rapport aux autres, celles sur les différents mondes, en particulier le monde du travail. Ces résultats témoignent de l'importance du changement personnel qui résulte de la démarche ainsi que de l'importance des connaissances qui soutiennent ce changement.

Rôles sexuels et sociaux

Les changements au niveau de l'identité font éclater le modèle dominant de mère et d'épouse en en faisant sauter les limites. Les femmes ont pris de l'assurance, de la confiance en soi, de l'influence, du pouvoir, de l'autonomie. Il y a eu baisse du sentiment d'invisibilité, de dévalorisation, de culpabilité et d'abnégation de soi. Les capacités des femmes ont été mises en évidence et celles des hommes, démystifiées. Il y a eu une réappropriation du corps et les rapports aux autres se sont pacifiés. Ils sont devenus plus égalitaires. Le réseau de connaissances s'est élargi. Les femmes de la recherche ont un sentiment d'appartenance au groupe social des femmes et ont fait un choix politique de solidarité. Les exigences à l'égard des autres femmes vont dans le sens de la responsabilisation et de la prise en charge.

Une des connaissances les plus importantes a été celle de la dimension collective de leur situation des femmes. Cette connaissance permet de sortir de l'isolement. Les femmes ne se sentent plus seules avec leurs dilemmes, leurs questionnements, leurs insatisfactions et leurs malaises. Elles n'en sont plus les uniques responsables. C'est dans cette perspective collective qu'ont pris du sens les notions de discrimination, de socialisation différenciée selon le sexe, d'autonomie, de dépendance, de modèles, de rôles, de victimisation, de domination. Les femmes de la recherche ont acquis des connaissances sur leur corps et sur la sexualité ainsi que sur l'appropriation sociale du corps des femmes. Leur démarche leur a permis de s'inscrire dans une trajectoire historique où les femmes ont existé et où, désormais, le choix d'appartenance aux femmes devient un projet de société.

Pouvoir et participation dans le monde

Les changements quant au pouvoir et à la participation des femmes dans le monde se situent essentiellement au niveau des connaissances. Celles-ci consolident la prise de conscience de la situation des femmes, le parti-pris pour les femmes, la solidarité, une perception accrue du pouvoir des femmes.

Quel que soit le monde que l'on considère, les femmes de la recherche ont pris connaissance de leur absence et de leur place de subalterne avec le pouvoir qui va de pair. Les femmes ne sont guère dans le monde politique et il est difficile de faire cheminer des dossiers qui les concernent. Dans le monde juridique, ce qui a été le plus frappant pour les femmes, car cela symbolise leur place, est l'absence de reconnaissance de la femme en tant que personne à un moment donné, pas si lointain, de l'histoire. Ce qui illustre leur non-pouvoir collectif dans lequel se fond leur non-pouvoir personnel.

La dimension socio-culturelle principale est celle de la domination, de l'oppression ou encore du rapport dominant-dominé. On observe le contexte et les normes sociales qui permettent au système de perdurer dans ses diverses manifestations: sexisme, stéréotypes, etc.

Au niveau économique, l'acquisition de l'autonomie financière est le principal élément de changement. Les femmes parlent d'argent, de leur peu d'argent. Le rapport à l'argent est modifié. Les femmes interviewées parlent aussi des conditions de travail précaires et difficiles, des ghettos dans lesquels elles sont souvent exploitées et non protégées. Le travail ne tient pas compte du travail ménager; son organisation n'a pas été pensée pour les femmes. On parle de l'accessibilité du travail et des conditions de travail; d'accès à l'égalité.

Les femmes de la recherche parlent peu du monde religieux et leurs propos sur le monde institutionnel portent sur le monde scolaire qui a pu être, pour certaines, discriminatoire ou non accessible. Quant au monde des organisations, elles font le même constat de leur non-présence, de leur rejet, de la difficulté de défendre et même de présenter des dossiers qui concernent les femmes. En bref, le système social se retrouve dans les organisations; la place des femmes dans les organisations reflète la place sociale des femmes. C'est par ailleurs dans les organisations que les femmes ont fait de multiples apprentissages qui les rendent plus aptes à mener la mission qu'elles se sont donnée: celle de promouvoir l'intérêt des femmes et de faire du monde un monde sans discrimination à l'égard des femmes. C'est par le biais des organisations qu'elles font avancer ce dossier et qu'elles ont pu constater la force et la vigueur du mouvement des femmes. Leur implication est résolument féministe et elles en sont fières.

La dimension collective de la situation des femmes est centrale dans l'ensemble des propos et des commentaires sur la place des femmes dans les différents mondes. Cette dimension procure une compréhension de la situation, la sort de l'arbitraire et de l'individuel. Elle offre une intégration des observations dispersées que chaque femme collige par elle-même. Ainsi, la perspective historique et sociologique du groupe social des femmes se trouve à être la connaissance fondamentale qui relie les différentes dimensions de changement que constitue la démarche féministe. Le savoir sur la situation collective des femmes est fondamental pour la transformation de la démarche féministe, de multiples connaissances y étant rattachées.

### Le savoir

Au niveau des connaissances, le plus grand changement des femmes de la recherche porte sur la dimension collective de la situation des femmes. Elles acquièrent ainsi une connaissance politique de leur situation à travers le féminisme et le mouvement des femmes. Et c'est par le biais du lien entre l'individuel et le collectif que les femmes se réapproprient le savoir avec lequel elles ont eu ou ont souvent un rapport difficile. La confiance en soi en regard du savoir augmente, tout comme la capacité de se situer par rapport au savoir, à des concepts (tel l'autonomie), aux femmes et à leur histoire.

Les connaissances que les femmes de la recherche trouvent maintenant importantes sont celles relatives au politique, à l'histoire, à l'action collective, à la situation sociale des femmes et à l'autonomie.

Les connaissances relatives aux connaissances sont de nature épistémologique et portent tant sur une critique des connaissances qui omettent les femmes ou les rendent invisibles que sur la création de connaissances par les femmes sur les femmes. Enfin, les connaissances sont jugées importantes.

Les changements au niveau des croyances portent sur les capacités des femmes, leur force et leur importance. Un certain dogmatisme quant au féminisme a été dépassé et les femmes de la recherche croient en la lutte des femmes et en leur libération. Quant aux valeurs, les changements portent sur le sentiment d'appartenance aux femmes, la solidarité. La liberté, la libération, l'autonomie font partie du nouveau système de valeurs tout comme une nouvelle fierté d'être femme et de faire partie du mouvement des femmes.

## La démarche féministe

La démarche féministe a manifestement entraîné des changements chez les femmes qui en ont parlé. Toutes celles qui l'ont vécue ont découvert qu'il existait une "condition féminine" alors qu'elles étaient à l'âge adulte. La démarche a modifié leur façon de s'inscrire dans la vie, leur perception des choses. Dans la transformation se retrouvent une perception de visibilité, d'influence et de pouvoir, une volonté de désocculter et de démystifier. La démarche aboutit à une pacification, à une certaine sérénité. Elles la considèrent toutes comme quelque chose d'important dans leur vie. Elles sont toutes heureuses d'être ce qu'elles sont devenues. Toutes les femmes sont satisfaites de leur démarche et fières d'être ce qu'elles sont devenues. Elles sont fières d'être féministes et ont concrétisé leur démarche par une implication féministe. Les connaissances auxquelles on fait référence sont l'occultation des femmes, la domination, la socialisation des filles dans leur dimension collective.

L'une des femmes interviewées fait exception en regard de la démarche féministe. Elle se démarque dans la mesure où sa démarche n'a pas pris forme à l'âge adulte. Elle a reçu une éducation féministe.

Pour les "aînées" de la recherche (3 femmes nées en 1938 ou avant), la démarche a été plus graduelle, plus pondérée que celles des plus jeunes (nées en 1946 ou après). Toutes ces femmes, sauf deux, disent avoir vécu une période majeure de changement.

D'après les propos tenus sur la démarche féministe, les événements particuliers de la vie courante ne sont pas des éléments déclencheurs de la démarche. Ainsi, la démarche féministe semble découler d'une démarche intérieure, d'un questionnement personnel ou d'une insatisfaction générale face à la situation vécue.

Au niveau des connaissances acquises pendant la démarche féministe, la dimension collective de la situation des femmes se distingue par sa récurrence dans toutes les catégories et sous-catégories. Elle constitue aussi le savoir fondamental de la démarche féministe qui permet de bâtir les assises de la démarche féministe en mettant à jour les caractéristiques des femmes en tant que groupe social dans les différents mondes. C'est la juxtaposition de ces connaissances qui favorise la prise de conscience et engage les changements. La dimension collective de la situation des femmes permet de saisir la signification de la discrimination, de l'oppression, de la domination qui se manifestent de façon systémique.

## Conclusion

La démarche féministe a nécessité l'acquisition de multiples connaissances. Ces connaissances se sont sans cesse conjuguées aux changements de croyances et de valeurs qui se traduisent éventuellement en attitudes et en comportements. Ces connaissances n'étaient pas facilement accessibles. C'est grâce à des lectures, plus que nombreuses, d'auteures féministes ou d'écrits issus du mouvement des femmes et des échanges suivis avec des femmes que les femmes de la recherche ont pu développé leur savoir qui se fonde sur la dimension collective de la situation des femmes. Les nouvelles connaissances doivent être utiles et servir la cause des femmes. Il y a eu modification du rapport au savoir. Le savoir féministe doit s'appliquer à l'action et ne plus occulter la place, le rôle et la contribution des femmes au développement de la société. Le féminisme procure un sens et une cohérence intellectuelle à la situation de vie des femmes de la recherche et à celles des autres femmes. Il a permis un changement qui passe par le social.

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# INDUSTRIAL STUDIES FOR TRADE UNIONISTS: A REPORT ON TGWU DISTANCE LEARNING COURSES FROM THE UK.

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An explanation of why Britain's largest union developed distance-learning courses, in the context of a critique of general trade-union education. The regional variations are described, and an evaluation, based on the Leeds experience, is offered.

Un résumé de la raison pour laquelle le syndicat le plus grand en Grande Bretagne a établi des cours de l'apprentissage à distance, dans la forme d'un critique de l'éducation syndicale en général. Je vous propose de décrire les variations régionales et de soumettre une évaluation basée dur l'expériment à Leeds.

* * * *

Few courses for trade unionists run in the UK could be described as 'distance learning' courses. For some time there have been postal courses run by both individual unions and the TUC, which usually involve work being sent in to a tutor for comments. Few such courses, however, contain any elements of direct contact, for example telephone tutoring, or other features normally associated with standard distance learning courses. Also, the range of these courses has often been limited with the unions involved seeing them essentially as 'starter' courses. Both the TUC and individual unions have concentrated on day-release and weekend short course provision, largely targetted at improving workplace representatives' skills.

This concentration on representatives' skills, associated as it was with an increased recognition of the role of shop-stewards in workplace bargaining, rather than broader workers' education associated with earlier traditions, was typical of trade union education from the middle sixties through to the end of the seventies.[1] This promotion of workplace bargaining and the emphasis on formalised workplace agreements provided plenty of material for trade union education. Release provisions legislated in the middle seventies were for workplace 'industrial relations' purpose and the training was accompanied by State funding. The quantative growth in course provision in the latter part of this period was impressive: TUC 10/12 day-release courses increased from 643 involving 8,721 student places in 1973-4 to 2,849 courses with 40,000 students in 1978-9.

The curriculum did expand to new areas of knowledge such as health and safety; specific 'follow on' courses focussed on details of employment law or bargaining information gave scope for discussion of some wider issues; while other courses were targetted at women and others at representatives of ethnic minorities. Therefore, for a time it appeared that the programme was broad enough to allow a push from skills training to education. The limiting nature of the release provisions, however, was compounded by the conservatism of the TUC and some individual unions. The subsequent concentration on 'workplace-problem-based' courses was rationalised by reference to a simplistic transposition of 'child-centred' primary school methods into trade union courses. This perspective fitted neatly with both official union fears of 'politicisation' of **their** stewards, and later with fears of the withdrawal of State funding by a changed Government hostile to militant unionism.

Government funding has continued into the 1980s but it has been cut back and in part been made conditional on employer endorsement. The 10/12 day-release courses have fallen back to 1,327 with 15,537 students in 1986-7. Although they have been complemented with a growth in 1/2 day courses the overall curriculum is now more practical, safer and limited.

Both the political failure of the Labour Party to attract trade unionists' support in recent general elections, and the extensive political changes of the 1980s, have caused some unions to reconsider their educational provision. They have shown interest in a number of areas ranging from membership education programmes to courses targetted at particular groups (part-time women, for example), and an extended role for 'political' education.

The TGWU (Transport & General Workers Union), with its long tradition of educational provision, has been foremost in this process. It early identified a gap in the provision for activists - save for a few courses run mainly in adult residential colleges. The union argued that:

> "Subject matter has tended to be limited to what can be called 'non-political' or 'non-controversial' aspects of trade unionism. By far the greatest amount of TUC and individual trade union courses concern themselves with what is essentially training. Although the 'principles' of trade unionism and 'wider' questions of trade unionism are more often than not included in such courses, this is a secondary aspect, often 'slipped in' by the tutor ......."[2]

It also wanted courses which would allow its activists to remain within the union and community whilst studying these wider issues. Some new form of provision was therefore necessary.

### TGWU Distance Learning Courses

In discussion with Surrey University - the major provider of the union's courses in Region 1 (London and the South East) - it developed a new idea of 'distance learning' combining, in this case, tutorials with monthly course meetings over a twelve month period.[3] This, it was felt, would provide both the 'collectivism' via the course meetings so central to union activity and missing from postal courses, and a sustained course looking at issues beyond the workplace. The course should perhaps have been called 'half distance learning' but the 'distance learning' tag stuck and this and other similar regional courses are operated under the same title.

Different courses have been developed in four regions of the TGWU and whilst they have the same objectives, and operate within the same distance learning framework, they are of different design. The original Region 1 course had a strong emphasis on individual project work - with students advised by and allocated to one of a panel of tutors. The content of the course meetings was focussed on different topics, often with an invited lecturer. Region 8/Newcastle Polytechnic came up with a much more integrated course with course 'books' especially written for the purpose, which were carefully laid out in an accessible style and accompanied by checklists and questions. The teaching was undertaken by three tutors and the work was planned closely with the union's Regional Education Officer.[4] The Region 6/Universities of Manchester and Liverpool course was some way between these models, providing a distinctive and demanding set of notes, extracts and questions for the study areas. The course content was perhaps more 'academic' than either of the other two, with distinct contributions on economics, sociology and politics, but little directly on unions and industrial relations. The course days were handled by four tutors, and each module ran for just two to three months. There was also a strong emphasis on individual project work.[5]

The course devised for Region 9/University of Leeds marked a new departure in that the course was structured to run over two years, with each meeting day divided between two subject areas. This was based on our experience of longer day-release courses, specifically the two-year (30 days a year) course for TGWU busworkers. This has meant that modules can run for 4 to 6 months, allowing a much more thorough 'course of study' to be undertaken in each area. While individual project work has been retained it is seen as having a much lower priority. The course materials vary according to subject matter, the most developed consisting of a package of a study outline, extracts, documents, and guided reading followed by questions to be prepared for class discussion the next month. These are more challenging in content than Region 8's - as might be anticipated on a longer course - but not laid out and printed to their standard (a designer was part of their project team).

So far, four courses have been run in Region 1, three in Region 8, two in Region 6 and one two-year course in Region 9. Numbers on the courses have varied between 10-16 students. In spite of interviews and selection one or two courses have experienced significant drop-out with tutors commenting on the heavy course demands proving too much for those already deeply involved in union activity. Overall, all courses have been judged a success with students reporting favourably, and in some cases making substantial progress with project and course work - ranging from a book published from one student's work (Region 1), to establishing international workplace union contacts within a multi-national company (Region 8), to students tutoring TGWU weekend courses (Region 9).

Because these courses are experimental they have been subject to detailed scrutiny. Substantial course reports have been written in each Region and some have included surveys of student attitudes towards the courses. Such a survey has been done in Leeds, and preliminary observations on the results are offered here, although, given the well-known limitations of course assessment and evaluation through such a medium, this is by no means offered as a final or authoritative statement. The questions asked were broadly similar to those used in the survey conducted at the end of the first Region 8 course.

## Distance learning - the Leeds experiencee

### a) Student attitudes and objectives

**Previous experience:** All of the 15 students accepted on the course had previous experience of union education courses, either the TGWU's or the TUC's. They ranged from just one or two short residential courses to more typically these plus TUC 10-day courses for stewards and safety representatives. Six students listed 'home study', both stage 1 and 2, amongst previous courses undertaken. This is similar to the experience in the other Regions, and is not surprising since the courses were targetted at lay activists who had undertaken initial training.

**Reasons for applying:** These included the usual 'to make me more effective' and 'to give me more confidence' but also extended to a desire 'to study in more detail history and labour law', to gain 'wider range of subjects than usual' and more 'knowledge and understanding'.

Looking back at the application forms (completed some 14 months prior to the survey) all referred to the broader aspects of union activity; the political climate; the need for the unions to create change, etc., but this could have reflected the information on the leaflet about the course content and its purpose.

Interestingly, many also raised the point about the limiting nature of other courses they had attended. One wanted to get 'away from the day-to-day problems of the workplace focussed on on other courses', while another commented that some courses have 'been too rigid and formal and have not taken into account the wide variety of people on the course'. Others stressed how a 'broader course would be more useful at work and in the union' than others they had been on. Although the majority saw the course as complementary to previous courses - as, indeed, it was designed to be - these critical comments (which were in no way specifically elicited) were nevertheless included in students' statements of why they wanted to do the course and what they thought the branch and union would get out of it.

### b) Organisational issues and course work

**Release:** Nearly half the students experienced some initial difficulty in obtaining time off to attend the monthly meetings but in the end all managed to get most release paid for. This was an experience common to the other Regions' one-year courses.

**Course work:** Opinion was divided evenly over the question of whether the course work was more than, or about the same as, they expected with only one saying there was less. No one, however, said it was 'too little'; a few felt it was too much; and most felt it was about right. This was similar to other Regions' experience, the main difference being that more of their students complained of 'too much work' - as might be expected from a one-year course!

Most completed the assignments on their own but also talked to other branch members and family about some of the work. They directly involved members in some areas - particularly over the workplace history or project they were asked to do, but also law and other aspects of course work - via informal discussion, interviews or reports to branch meetings. Only two people said they had not involved members in any way. Region 8 responses were similar; they had specifically floated the idea of workplace discussion groups or 'study circles' but had found them difficult to establish in the one year available and on top of the course work.

Most students found that 'finding the time to study' was the most difficult problem; and whilst some areas of the course were identified as 'difficult' and others were not, no one considered any area 'impossible'. Similar to Region 8's experience, students found it impossible to link-up for study purposes outside of the day-schools (apart from the odd phone call).

**Books:** A book budget was provided by the TGWU, and the books purchased were generally thought to be 'very useful'. Other books and booklets were used by students, with the TGWU and Labour Research Department (LRD) being the most popular sources of additional information. One of the course books used was common to that used by other Regions (**Trade Unions in Britain**[6]) but the response on our course contrasted with that of an identical question asked in Region 8: where only 3 students rated it as 'useful'. Our course put more emphasis on reading and discussing the relevant chapters (one at a time, but together with other sources), whereas Region 8 supplied more detailed notes with sections of the book seen as a secondary source. This difference, together with the time factor, may explain the divergence of opinion.

### c) Results

Of the 15 starters, 13 students progressed to the second year. The only unemployed member left to go to full-time adult residential college, and the other leaver accepted promotion. In their original applications all students expected the course to benefit the union. Asked later in the survey whether the course had influenced their union activity, students replied (9 to 5) that it had. Comments were varied and included: that it had 'stimulated interest in the union's Regional activity'; had given more confidence; and had meant that they looked at events differently 'away from the tunnel vision of the workplace'. When asked if the course would promote greater involvement in the union all those who answered were positive. The responses were interesting in that most related to external as well as internal activity - a desire to be involved in lay tutoring and in regional activity was included, as was the view that awareness of history and politics would assist their activity within the Labour Party and help in 'argument with the public', etc. A few had definite plans about what they wanted to do in the union.

The majority could not identify specific changes in branch organisation (not very surprising since they came from reasonably well organised branches) but a few did make changes, including setting up a branch fund, and affiliating to LRD and the Labour Party, whilst others said they were now more active. One member is now on a TGWU national committee and another is a local authority elected representative (Councillor).

In many ways Region 8's responses on the usefulness of the course were even more positive, giving specific examples of changes in branch organisation and affiliation. Other Regions also reported favourably on the impact of the course on union activity. However, it is always difficult to separate cause and effect in this matter: was the attendance on the course one aspect of a greater activity or did the course lead to greater activity? In any case, tutors are particularly sensitive to anything which might help to persaude the 'client' to continue a relationship with the 'provider'!

## Conclusions

Overall, this development in 'distance learning' courses for trade unionists has proved successful. The union has added another dimension to its educational provision and has achieved its purpose of addressing broader questions whilst retaining members within the union. The higher education institutions involved have been able to develop a sustained course within the liberal tradition, targetted at working class adults who would otherwise miss out on these resources. Other major unions are now looking closely at this model of 'distance learning'. However, we still have a lot to learn from Canadian and other experience on methods of delivery and course design.

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# WORKPLACE LITERACY DEMANDS

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**ABSTRACT:** The purpose of this study was to identify the literacy requirements of 10 college vocational training programs and their corresponding occupations. Readability estimates of vocational preparation curriculum and job site materials are presented. Results may help to improve instruction and assist basic education students in making more accurate career choices based on their skills.

**RESUME:** Cette étude avait pour but d'identifier les pré-requis d'alphabétisation dans les 10 programmes d'entraînements d'un collège et de leurs occupations correspondantes. Un calcul d'estimation du degré de difficulté des textes dans les curriculum et du matériel de travail sont présentés. Les résultats peuvent aider à améliorer l'instruction et à assister les étudiants d'éducation de base en faisant des choix de carrière plus judicieux basés sur leur habiletés.

## Introduction

Training and retraining of people for success in occupational roles is a complex and difficult one which engenders considerable debate on the topic of functional job literacy. Occupational literacy development is a major component of prevocational, vocational and on-the-job training. Rush, Moe and Storlie (1986) define occupational literacy as the ability to competently read required work related materials. The definition derived from Kirsch and Guthrie (1977-78) proposed that functional literacy be defined according to the demands of specific situations in terms of competency in reading alone, but more recent research has included listening, speaking and writing as literacy related competencies. Spikes and Cornell (1987, p. 181) explain that "beyond reading competence and with reference to the wide variety of occupations, occupational literacy is a term that should be perceived as "fluid" in terms of individual competencies related to situations."

Kenter (1986) claims that as the work place becomes complicated, requiring higher specialized skills and training, the definition of illiteracy will have to be broadened to include those who can't meet the new workplace requirements. Current estimates of occupational demands for literacy indicate that over 90% of occupations call for some reading and writing. (Mikulecky, 1982). Further 70% of occupations require reading at a grade 9 - 12 level. Only 15% of occupations require reading levels below the grade 9 level. (Mikulecky, 1984). Researchers have found the average work place requires not only the ability to read, write and compute but also the ability to use those skills in problem solving situations. The average worker must read and skim a wide variety of materials to solve problems and make decisions. This is in contrast to the school environment where the student is reading primarily to gain literal facts.

In a recent study, Hull and Sechler (1987) reviewed the adult literacy skills needed in the workplace and classified those needs according to type of skill. Generally, the results indicated that higher level skills are needed in today's work force than 5 years ago. The authors suggest that as more companies convert to more complex equipment, employee skills must be upgraded. Basic literacy skills serve as pre-requisites to the learning of more technical knowledge. This knowledge is specific to types of equipment and industries but the underlying literacy skills tend to be somewhat generic. Company managers, instructors and trainers identified some of the following skills necessary for successful job entry: reads, writes and counts (math-related), reads for facts and information, writes legibly, completes forms and applications adequately, signs forms appropriately, writes dates and times correctly h) uses listening skills to identify procedures to follow and speaks face to face coherently.

## Method

In order to select the 10 skill training preparation programs, 150 student records were examined from three basic employment orientation programs offered in an eastern Ontario community college. Records were reviewed between the period of 1982 - 1987. Student information regarding further skill training programs referred to or the type of employment found by graduating trainees was collected. This information was then categorized into the following ten major vocational preparation programs: Motor Vehicle Mechanic, Engineering Technician, Baker, Computer Operator, Cabinet Maker, Welder, Cook, Business Equipment Service Technician, Electronics Assembler and Refrigeration and Air Conditioning Technician. Reading and writing requirements needed for these programs were identified and compared to those on the job sites for each of the corresponding occupations. Instructors, co-ordinators and students were interviewed for each of the vocational preparation programs. Three job sites corresponding to the occupational training program were identified and employee's and supervisors were interviewed. A similar study conducted by Rush, Moe and Storlie (1986) investigated vocational preparation programs and occupations of a professional and para professional nature whereas in this investigation the more basic training programs and semi-skilled occupations were examined.

An occupational literacy survey was constructed and used in interviews with instructors, job site supervisors and employees when referring to reading and writing competencies. Both instructors and students in each training program selected samples of course materials used on a regular basis or of primary importance. Generally text books, manuals, operation and procedure guides and safety practices were selected. On the job sites day - to - day examples of reading and writing tasks were collected from employees and supervisors. Technical references, working practices, policies and instructions, handbooks, memoranda, correspondence and training manuals were used in the analysis.

Four readability formulas were used to determine the readability of each curriculum sample and related job materials. These included the Dale-Chall Formula, the Raygor Formula, the Fog Index and the Fry Readability Graph. In using the different readability formulas certain job materials were not analyzed because they were less than 30 words or were illustrations, graphics, diagrams or tabled information. Estimates of formula-based predictors of readability should be interpreted with caution. These methods do not account for the influence of reader-related factors such as knowledge, task/text familiarity, interest and motivation.

## Results

Reading Requirements. Reading was a daily requirement of both trainees in the vocational preparation courses and of employees involved in this investigation. Although there were variations in time spent on reading and on types of materials read, this skill was required in each of the settings. Students in all preparation programs except for Baker and Business Equipment Services Technician spent much more time per day reading compared to workers in the corresponding occupation. Greater training program use of reading skills is due to the need for presentation of large quantities of information in a limited period of time. Based on estimates from students, instructors, employees and employers, it would appear that trainees spend 2/3 more time per day reading than workers, In some occupations workers reported that they sometimes reread the same material several times per workday.

Readability scores for all training program materials and occupational site materials ranged from a grade 9 to a grade 12 level. For some vocational preparation programs, readability estimates indicated that trainees with the appropriate admission requirements may encounter difficulty in reading the core curriculum. This was the case for the Motor Vehicle Mechanic, Cabinet Maker, Business Equipment Services Technician and the Electronics Assembler programs. Readability estimates from the workplace samples closely paralleled the estimates from the training program. The range of scores from both settings were the same for Baker, Welding Fitter, Cook and Air Conditioning and Refrigeration Technician. For the other occupations, scores from on-the-job materials were lower than in the training program. Based on this analysis, trainees who were able to read the vocational training materials would be able to read on-the-job reading tasks. It should be mentioned here that reading materials encountered by students and workers participating in the study varied in length, type, level of usage and format. The use of expository and descriptive prose was more frequently observed in the reading tasks required of the training program than of the workplace setting.

Writing Requirements. The writing requirements for the two settings were very different. In the training program writing skills were used for note taking, and writing tests, quizzes, project assignments and examinations. On-the-job writing competencies required only rudimentary skills. It is interesting to note that trainee perceptions of essential writing skills required in the sought after occupation were only minimally observed on the workplace setting. Being able to write pertinent information in work format was perceived by the majority of trainees as an essential skill. In the training program the style of writing was usually formal and technical whereas on-the-job handwritten prose was informal, abbreviated, ungrammatical and often only contained essential information.

In summary, all training and occupation settings investigated in this study required reading at a grade 9 - 12 level and some form of writing skills using a technical vocabulary. As well employees spent much less time reading than trainees. On the average employees spent 65 minutes a day reading which is slightly less than Mikulecky's findings of 97 minutes per day for blue collar workers.

## Instructional Recommendations and Strategies

Skills and knowledge are best learned if they are presented in a context that is meaningful to the person. The more similar the basic skills training tasks are to the actual job tasks, the greater will be the likelihood that the training will pay off in improved job performance. Based on the results of this investigation, reading was used both as a tool for accomplishing work and as a tool for learning information on the job and in the training. One approach to better preparing such trainees in basic education programs is to design lessons which develop literacy skills and impart job-related knowledge. The following are a few suggestions that may help instructors prepare students for success in work roles:

1. Developing vocabulary skills using context clues which focus on specific work topics

2. Using specialized vocabulary from training and occupational settings to enhance vocabulary development

3. Improving structural analysis skills by using words drawn from various technical fields

4. Emphazing comprehension skills through the use of "Job Sheets" which describe specific job tasks and asks the learner to answer procedural questions and

5. Promoting risk taking at the expense of correctness in writing

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# La situation autodidactique comme situation d'auto-éco-organisation.

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*Résumé*: Comme le note Spear (I984), l'environnement autodidactique n'est pas structuré pour être éducatif, obéit à une autre logique de structuration ou n'est simplement pas structuré. Le problème est donc dans la nécessité d'appliquer à la situation étudiée un modèle qui permette de rendre compte de sa spécificité. Le modèle de Varela (I988) se révèle pertinent puisqu'il décrit la nature des interactions du système vivant avec l'environnement non-structuré de son espace de vie.

*Abstract*: As noted by Spear (I984), the self-directed learning situation is not expressly intended for educational activities. Therefore, the problem is to find out a model with an heuristic potential to ask the relevant questions about the context/learner interaction in which consists the "autodidactical" learning. Varela's model seems to be such a model since it describles the nature of the interactions of the living system with its unstructured life space.

L'autodidacte, cet individu qui apprend seul et s'instruit lui-même revêt un caractère quasiment archétypal dans l'inconscient collectif des éducateurs d'adultes. Il constitue ce Robinson Crusoé de la connaissance (auquel il est d'ailleurs souvent comparé) qui incarne l'idéal de l'autosuffisance de la société occidentale. Comme Robinson est le social à lui tout seul, comme le self-made man, l'autodidacte apprend sans qu'il ait besoin d'être enseigné et s'inscrit dans la lignée des sujets autonomes par excellence.

L'apparition de la problématique de l'apprentissage autonome en éducation des adultes fait suite aux travaux de Tough (I967, ) qui révèlent l'importance et la prépondérance de l'apprentissage autonome parmi les apprenants adultes. Pour sa part, il parle alors de projets d'apprentissage auto-dirigé et auto-planifié pour signifier qu'ils sont réussis et mis en oeuvre en dehors du système éducatif et qu'ils se situent dans un contexte non intentionnelle-structuré pour être éducatif. Pour notre part, nous parlerons dorénavant d'apprentissage autodidactique ou plus simplement d'autodidaxie. Le travail de Tough a inauguré un courant de recherches regroupées sous le paradigme du self-directed learning (SDL). Caffarella (I987), qui a fait un état exhaustif de ces travaux, identifie cinq thématiques principales dans la problématique du SDL. Outre des recherches descriptives, l'auteure relève les recherches portant sur la nature du processus d'apprentissage auto-dirigé, celles portant sur les caractéristiques de l'apprenant auto-dirigé, celles portant sur la relation entre le SDL et les philosophies de l'éducation et celles portant sur la relation entre le SDL et l'éducation des adultes en tant qu'appareil politique et social. Quand on considère cette typologie des recherches s'inscrivant dans le paradigme du SDL, on observe trois choses. D'abord, il semble que le SDL en tant que paradigme de recherche ait transformé la problématique de l'apprentissage autonome dans le sens *d'extérieur* au contexte formel d'éducation en une problématique de l'autonomie de l'apprentissage *dans* ce même contexte. Ensuite, comme le remarquent Mocker and Spear (I982, p. 2I):

> "Surveys assumed or tried to equate the self-directed learning process with the process employed traditionnaly in planning and organising formal education."

Enfin, et sans doute en relation avec la constatation précédente, on peut s'étonner de l'absence d'une thématique portant sur le rôle du contexte d'apprentissage. Comme le remarque Spear (I988, p. 207):

> "To understand self-directed learning without reference to environnment ignores research and common sense."

Pourtant, ce que les travaux de Tough avaient découvert, ce n'est pas tant l'existence d'un type "autonome" d'apprentissage adulte qu'un type de processus d'apprentissage qui, bien que mis en oeuvre dans un contexte non-éducatif aboutissait néanmoins à un apprentissage réussi. Il est vrai que Tough avait constaté aussi que la principale motivation des apprenants était de maintenir leur autonomie dans le processus d'apprentissage. Mais si l'on se reporte à certaines recherches sur le SDL, l'on s'aperçoit qu'un facteur additionnel à l'autonomie pourrait constituer la variable intermédiaire qui explique la corrélation entre l'autonomie et la réussite de l'autodidaxie à savoir l'adéquation d'une stratégie d'apprentissage au contexte d'apprentissage dans lequel elle se situe. Plusieurs auteurs,oeuvrant en éducation des adultes et se réclamant du SDL pour catégoriser leur paradigme de recherche, travaillent en fait dans celui de l'autodidaxie dans la mesure où ils s'intéressent à l'adéquation d'une stratégie d'apprentissage à un contexte "not expressly intended for educational activities" (Spear and Mocker, I984, p. I). Ces auteurs seraient Martin (I984), Spear (I988), Peters et Lazarra (I988), Danis et Tremblay (I985) et Theil (I988). Traitée par eux, la problématique de l'autodidaxie peut être abordée à partir de prémisses nouvelles et renouer avec le travail originel de Tough. Pour ce faire, ces auteurs essaient des modèles qui permettent de comprendre cette situation d'apprentissage spécifique qu'est l'autodidaxie et de rendre compte de certaines "anomalies" constatées dans les recherches empiriques menées à l'intérieur du paradigme du SDL. Par exemple, Mocker and Spear (I982), s'attendant à trouver la planification détaillée sensée caractériser l'apprentissage autonome ne pouvait que constater et reporter la conjonction de l'absence d'une telle planification et le caractère réussi des apprentissages autodidactes étudiés. De leur côté, Danis et Tremblay (I985) constataient qu'un autodidacte n'acquerrait une habileté sensée être le prérequis à l'accomlissement d'un tâche subséquente, qu'après s'être engagé dans cette tâche et s'être aperçu qu'il lui manquait un savoir-faire.

Afin de contraster le modèle de l'auto-éco organisation de Varela (I988) dont nous nous inspirons pour comprendre la situation autodidactique, nous présenterons succintement les modèlesdont s'inspirent ces auteurs.

Martin (I984) propose un modèle d'auto-instruction fondé sur les travaux théoriques et empiriques menés en counselling et en psychologie clinique, en éducation des adultes et sur les travaux portant sur la résolution de problème. Martin pose que l'autodidacte est un "information processing system" dont une des tâches critique est de créer une structure d'information, tâche habituellement dévolue à l'instructeur dans un contexte éducatif.

De son côté, Spear (I988), prenant en compte la place du contexte dans l'autodidaxie, cherche à problématiser la nature de l'interaction que constitue ce savoir-apprendre particulier. L'auteur pose que la determination réciproque de l'environnement et d'un sujet n'implique pas que les individus sont des objets seulement manipulés par l'environnement ni qu'ils peuvent y faire ce qui bon leur semble. L'intérêt de cette approche est de concevoir l'efficacité des savoir-apprendre autodidactiques comme l'adéquation d'un répertoire de savoir-faire (directed, explorary, fortuitous actions) à l'état du contexte rencontré à chaque moment du processus d'apprentissage (consistent or fortuitous environnment).

Il convient de signaler aussi les travaux de Peters et Lazarra (1988) qui s'apparentent à ceux de Martin et qui modélisent la stratégie d'apprentissage autodidactique comme étant l'application par un individu de règles de productions semblables à celles qu'utilise un système expert pour résoudre un problème. L'intérêt des travaux de ces auteurs réside dans le fait qu'ils posent que ce que fait un individu dans une situation donnée est avant tout déterminée par les particularités et les singularités du contexte où il agit et dépend surtout de la nature des connaissances que l'apprenant possède déjà.

Bien que notre conception de l'autodidaxie s'inscrit dans la même perspective que celles de ces auteurs, elle en diverge sur un plan important. En effet, les modèles adoptés par ces auteurs (le système de traitement de l'information de Martin, le déterminisme réciproque de Spear et le système expert de Peters et Lazarra) ont tendance à sous-estimer une caractéristique fondamentale du contexte autodidactique qu'ils veulent prendre en compte, à savoir que ce n'est pas un lieu de rencontre avec des informations significatives auxquelles il s'agit d'accéder, puis qu'il s'agit de traiter et de trans-former i.e. de collecter, de trier, d'organiser et d'évaluer. Le contexte autodidactique est le lieu de rencontre avec des événements i.e. des "informations" dont rien n'indique le caractère significatif ou non mais qui plus est dont rien n'indique qu'elles sont pertinentes (dans le sens où l'on entend la notion de relevancy en anglais); bref, des événements à qui le statut même d'information doit être octroyé. En d'autres termes, l'autodidacte doit simultanément in-former des événements de son contexte d'apprentissage en informations pertinentes et les trans-former en informations significatives.

Comme le remarque Lévy (1985, p. 181):

> "L'information ou la connaissance ne peuvent résider nulle part que dans l'activité nerveuse d'un organisme. Un organisme ne pouvant partager son activité nerveuse avec un autre, en toute rigueur il n'y a donc pas de "transmission d'information" ou de "communication de connaissance" par voie directe."

Comme le remarque également Morin (1980, p. 194):

> "Un être vivant extrait des informations de son environnement afin d'y adapter ses actions. L'environnement n'émet pas d'informations à destination d'un être vivant et n'apporte pas les informations mais les conditions d'extraction des informations.

Ce que Lévy et Morin remarquent à propos de l'activité de connaissance d'un système vivant à propos de son environnement s'applique d'une manière récursive à l'autodidacte comme système vivant s'efforçant de connaître son contexte d'apprentissage afin de repérer des événements d'apprentissage. De fait, l'idée que les informations ne résident pas dans l'environnement comme si ce dernier était une sorte "d'éco-thèque" constitue l'une des trois caractéristiques du modèle d'auto-éco organisation de Varela (1988). Pour cet auteur, l'étude du comportement d'un système connaissant en relation avec un environnement devient critique quand il faut non pas saisir comment le sytême "traite" les informations qui y seraient présentes mais comment il doit en générer à partir d'un environnement qui en est exempt. Si, pour Varela, la finalité d'un système connaissant est de maintenir une économie d'interactions viables avec son environnement afin de se maintenir en tant système, il a besoin de le connaître et de le re-connaître constamment pour le rendre prévisible donc viable. Or l'environnement devient à tout moment un "autre" environnement à cause du surgissement d'événements imprévisibles, ambigus et complexes que le système doit reconnaître comme cessant d'être ou devenant significatifs (indices), non-pertinents (bruit) ou pertinents (informations) ou comme non "traitables" par son système actuel de traitement des événements (interférences) . Enfin, pour Varela, apprendre consiste à modifier son système de traitement des événements afin de rendre les événements/rencontres du type interférence de nouveau compatibles avec la logique de son fonctionnement; d'autant plus que pour Varela l'on apprend malgré, contre et grâce aux événements interférenciels. Comme le remarque Morin (1980, p. 63):

> "La présence multi-forme et multi-présente du "bruit" n'est pas seulement dégradante dans une organisation complexe: elle en nourrit la complexité. Les ambiguités, incertitudes, "bruits" de l'environnement posent des questions, problèmes, énigmes, charades aux êtres vivants (...). Ainsi l'ambiguité, l'incertitude, l'erreur ne sont qu'en première instance des limites, des lacunes, des insuffisances dans la communication éco-systémique. En seconde instance, ce sont des facteurs de complexité, de raffinement, de subtilité."

Appliqué à la situation autodidactique, le modèle de l'auto-éco-organisation présente un potentiel heuristique dans la mesure où il la fait apparaître comme l'espace d'interactions d'un apprenant qui s'efforce de rendre pertinents d'abord, et significatifs ensuite des événements/rencontres en les informant en événements d'apprentissage. En effet, le contexte autodidactique se caractérise précisemment par le fait qu'aucune ressource et qu'aucun élément de connaissance peut être catégorisé a priori comme étant ou n'étant pas pertinent.. Par ailleurs, toute ressource et tout élément de connaissance non-pertinent à un moment du processus d'apprentissage peut le devenir dans un moment subséquent ou bien ne jamais le devenir. A l'inverse, l'apprenant peut rencontrer un élément de connaissance ou entrer en contact avec une ressource qui au yeux d'un tiers ou à ses propres yeux mais sur un mode rétrospectif apparaîtra comme capital et qu'il manquera parce qu'elles ont été rencontrées prématuremment. Pour un autodidacte, il ne suffit pas de reconnaître, parmi des informations pertinentes, celles qui sont significatives en les traitant à partir des connaissances du domaine d'apprentissage qu'il possède déjà. Il s'agit pour lui de rester disponible et sensible à tous les événements (ressources, connaissances publiques et expériencielles des personnes) rencontrés à chaque moment du processus d'apprentissage et au gré de son évolution afin de les informer en événements d'apprentissage. En d'autres termes, alors que dans un contexte intentionnellement éducatif, l'instructeur aménage (idéalement parlant) la rencontre de l'apprenant avec un événement pertinent et significatif i.e. au moment précis où il est prêt à le re-connaître comme un indice ou à le reconnaître comme une interférence constructive, l'autodidacte ne peut pas ne pas profiter de chaque événement/rencontre pour d'abord s'interroger sur sa pertinence éventuelle (en se guidant pour ce faire sur son caractère inattendu) avant de se préoccuper de le rendre significatif par rapport à une structure de connaissances même si cette dernière n'a pas un lien direct avec le domaine d'apprentissage.

En particulier, le modèle de l'auto-éco organisation permet de rendre compte de certains comportements d'apprentissage en situation autodidactique difficilement explicables à l'intérieur du paradigme traditionnel du SDL mais qui deviennent "évidents" après recadrage. Ainsi, le caractère non-systématique de la planification autodidactique s'explique par le fait qu'une planification détaillée présupposant un contexte prévisible pour être efficace, ne peut se révéler que contre productive dans un contexte aléatoire.

C'est ainsi que le fait de ne pas acquérir des savoir-faire en suivant une progression commençant par les habiletés de base pour continuer par les habiletés plus complexes mais selon une séquence inverse obéit à une rationalité induite par le contexte autodidactique. En effet, l'autodidacte ne peut pas ne pas essayer de courir avant de marcher si le hasard des rencontres lui en offre l'occasion. Pour le moins, la difficulté qu'il éprouve à acquérir un savoir-faire complexe en lui révélant qu'il ne connaît pas lui permet de chercher à connaître ce qu'il ne connaît pas. C'est ainsi que le fait que l'autodidacte est dit utiliser beaucoup d'analogies et de métaphores peut s'expliquer par le fait que rencontrant à tout moment des "informations" qui n'ont pas de sens pour lui, il fera en sorte de les intégrer à un cadre de connaissances différent de celui qui s'applique au domaine d'apprentissage thématisé mais qui présente néanmoins des ressemblances avec lui.

Il serait intéressant de reprendre systématiquement les informations portant sur le processus autodidactique qui ont été recueillies dans les différentes recherches et de les ré-interpréter à la lumière des contraintes (positives et négatives) d'un contexte aléatoire telles que modélisées par Varela et qui l'affectent. En effet, la connaissance de l'autodidaxie permettrait de considérer sous un jour nouveau ce que pourrait être un événement d'enseignement. L'instructeur pourrait être ce génie bienveillant qui, caché derrière le rideau de scène, télescope dans une durée raccourcie les occasions d'heureuses rencontres "au hasard" dont l'apprenant a besoin pour trouver une réponse à une question et pour se poser des questions, surtout.

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# BRIDGING THE GAP IN BOTH DIRECTIONS

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## Abstract

There are in Canada, as in most countries of the world, particularly the industrial societies, two principal systems of education. One is, of course, the formal system and the other the system to be found distributed among large and small organizations throughout the society, most, but by no means all, of a private, commercial, character. One is in a state of spiritual and financial, though not numerical, decline. The other is booming in all respects, including public approbation and support. For the first, learning in a variety of modes, is its sole preoccupation: for the second, learning with a comparable variety, is a byproduct of its principal purposes.

Both systems involve the production and application of knowledge. Both are engaged in transmitting knowledge and attitudes to large numbers of individuals by means of relatively similar techniques. For example, a study of industrial training and development programs, in Canada, in 1964, revealed that the most utilized device in instructing was the classroom.

Here, perhaps the grand similarities end, though in most cases contrasts between the two systems are a matter of degree, rather than kind. For example, the formal system was, and to a large degree remains, designed primarily for children and youth: a fact that determines everything else it does more than is generally recognized. Despite that fact it has been relentlessly extending its influence over older and older members of Canadian society. In contrast the informal system has emerged primarily as a vehicle for adult learning, though it does extend to the young through such voluntary vehicles as scouting, guiding, etc.

The formal system presides over entry to the society, for the young, leading up to, but not quite encompassing, entry to employment, and for many, to adult life. It is to a large degree, self-contained, in the sense that it rewards achievement only with respect to experience which it alone provides. It is public.in the sense that it is publicly financed, publicly controlled, and holds exclusively the right to certify. Its awards are increasingly accepted by the society as a whole over wide areas of performance.

The informal system dominates entry to employment, passages through various ranks, changes effecting specific organizations, and special individual problems, such as those to which "employee assistance programs" are directed. Awards for achievement do not take the form of "portable" public certification, but are, for the most part, relative to the specific environment in which the achievement takes place. In general, the onus is on the individual to demonstrate, repeatedly if necessary, the required performance learned under informal auspices. The informal system does acknowledge formal certification, though frequently, with some mediation with respect to application. It is not self-contained in the sense of the formal system.

The informal system has grown with remarkable rapidity since the conclusion of World War II. though its origins can be found earlier in the growth of industrialization and scientific agriculture. The formal system has grown steadily since the beginning of the century, with an impressive leap forward in the years immediately following the second world war. but the essence of its "form" has not changed substantially.

The question this research report addresses is of the evolving relationship(s) between these two systems, relationships that may serve to alter them both in fundamental ways. A great deal of the public rhetoric to which we are all exposed suggest that whatever the particular outcome(s), those relationships are essential to our survival as a country and as a society.

In 1986 the Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council invited proposals on, "Education and Work in a Changing Society", indicating that, "education encompasses more than simply schooling and refers rather to the lifelong process of learning, structured and informal". The purpose of the project reported was. "to explore one critical aspect of the relationship between education and work, namely, the granting of educational equivalent standing for learning accomplished outside of the formal system of education, primarily in employment related settings". Our question, essentially. was to what degree is it possible for individuals to move from work to education without having to enter the educational system at the place or level at which they had left it - or - to what degree, and how, is the educational system in Canada willing to acknowledge learning accomplished outside of that system?

The enquiry focused on all three levels of education in Canada. A mail-back questionnaire surveying policies and practices with respect to the granting of admission and advanced standing on the basis of "prior learning assessment" was sent to 240 educational providing agencies in all provinces of Canada. A total of 148 (64.9%) completed questionnaires were returned by post-secondary agencies (65 universities; 83 colleges). Of the 12 ministries included, 10 responded. The findings are all reported in terms of those responding.

Specifically our concerns were defined by the following questions:

1. To what extent, at all levels of education in Canada, with the exception of entry to elementary school, are criteria other than formal academic achievement utilized for purposes of granting admission and/or advanced standing?

2. How are these practices managed, and by whom? What types of assessment are made, based on what sort of information and criteria?

3. What is the approximate volume of student participation in these procedures; how are students informed of their availability, and what forms of monitoring and recording of the achievements of these students exist?

4. What influences have played major roles in the development and maintenance of these procedures? How frequently are they reviewed, and what types of information are utilized for such reviews?

5. What are the expectations for future developments of these procedures?

For purposes of this paper, we are reporting the results in paragraph form, related directly to the questions. Reported percentages are of the agencies that responded to the invitation.

**1.** Of the universities, 86%, and of the colleges, 88% reported using prior learning assessment (PLA) as a basis for granting admission. Of the ministries, 70% indicated that such admission was possible. With respect to the granting of advanced standing, on the basis of PLA, 40% of the universities, 72% of colleges, and 50% of ministries, indicated that they made such provisions. However, a majority of both universities and colleges reported that a "transitional year" or some comparable device was utilized. The majority of universities and ministries introduced admission practices prior to 1975, colleges somewhat later. The granting of advanced standing was introduced later than that by all three types of agencies

**2.** Decisions with respect to admission are more widely distributed in colleges(61.4%) than by universities(42%). Sixty percent of the Ministries reported that School Boards controlled the procedures, with considerable delegation to individual schools. With respect to the granting of advanced standing, forty-one percent of universities, and sixty-six percent of colleges indicated that decisions were delegated to departments. The ministries were equally divided with respect to the exercise of authority between themselves and Boards and individual schools. In no case was there evidence of the existence of individuals or positions specially designated for the management of these procedures. Less than 20% of both colleges and universities indicated that specific application forms were required. While eighty percent of the ministries reported that there were a minimum number of courses that must be taken in order to qualify for advanced standing, only forty percent of universities and thirty-seven percent of colleges indicated a similar rule.

The number of respondents who reported on the number of students represented in either category over the past five years was too small to be included. It was not clear whether they did not keep such information, perhaps for reasons of individual privacy, or whether it was simply too difficult to provide. Informal comment suggested that the numbers are small. Information to prospective students about the availability of the procedures was, in all cases provided by the formal information vehicles of the various agencies and, secondly, principally in the case of universities and colleges, by word of mouth. No agency reported the existence of long-term evaluations of the academic progress of students in either category.

**3.** With respect to types of information used as a basis for the granting of admission and advanced standing, universities indicated use of the following; previous academic record(78%), applicant's age(71%), years since graduation((68%), employment experience(66%), and job-related courses(65%). More than half the universities take into consideration military courses, community work and self-directed learning. The factors most considered by colleges were, previous academic record(83%), employment experience(83%), job-related courses(81%), military courses(73%), self-directed learning(71%), and years since graduation(65%). The factors least considered by both types of agencies were domestic experience, travel, and hobbies. Ministries considered age and previous academic experience, languages, and self-directed learning, in that order. For the ministries, travel, was by far the least considered.

Clearly, all agencies rely on information derived from environments most familiar to them, and least on those environments where the experience is the most individual and private in character.

4. In response to the question about internal influences on introducing both practices. universities identified. in rank order. faculty. deans. registrar. other senior admininstrators. the president. students. other staff. and alumni. Colleges identified the same factors with the reversal of the rank of president and other senior administrators. Ministries ranked ministry personnel. principals/other school staff. highest. with teachers and trustees the lowest. Universities attributed much less influence to any external sources. less than half that identified by colleges. For the universities. community groups. women's groups. business. teachers unions. government ministries. social service agencies. the armed services. trade unions. private consultants, and immigrant groups were identified, in that order. The colleges identified, government ministries, community groups, social service agencies, business. women's groups, trade unions, immigrant groups, the armed services, private consultants, and teachers unions. No ministry ranked external influences very highly. The greatest influence was attributed to community groups and other ministries. the least to private consultants. trade unions, teachers unions, business and women's groups. With respect to any regular consultation with external agencies regarding the use of these practices, a small number of universities(16.3% to 12.3%) reported regular consultation with government ministries and community groups. Rare consultation was reported by universities(10.8% to 7.7%) with community groups, women's groups. government ministries. immigrant groups, and private consultants. Colleges (38.5% to 21.7%) reported regular consultation with government ministries. community groups, social welfare agencies, business, and women's groups. Rare consultation(20.5% to 12%) with social welfare agencies, business, community groups, government ministries. trade unions. private consultants, and immigrant groups. Ministries showed the same modest commitment to outside regular consultation, with community groups ranked highest, followed by other ministries, immigrant groups, social welfare agencies, teachers unions, and women's groups.

Our findings revealed five distinct patterns in the frequency of revisions. Most respondents reported that practices are revised either annually or irregularly. The latter group reported a range of from five years to two years in the frequency of revision. Supply and demand and changes in provincial guidelines were mentioned most frequently; some respondents referred to the influence of the Charter of Rights and Freedoms. Input from faculty and staff tended to influence revisions in the universities, while program advisory committees were more frequently the source in colleges. In general the types of changes that were made included; revisions to admission requirements such as age. program prerequisites and length of absence from schooling; revisions to equivalency assessment procedures such as especially the introduction of challenge exams. Half of the ministries reported periodic revisions of the practices, with little external influence of any kind. Two ministries reported having undertaken cost analyses of these practices in order to compare them with regular practices. Final reports were not available.

Finally, in this section we asked about the rationale for the use of these procedures. The same three criteria ranked equally in both universities and colleges: attracting quality students who would normally not be accepted; providing equality of educational opportunity, and promoting students' opportunities for personal growth. Although promoting social equity ranked fourth in importance among universities, it ranked seventh among colleges. being displaced by maximizing educational resources, providing needed skills training, and meeting specific community needs. In general, the evidence suggested the existence of few major differences in the rationales of the two types of agencies. Among ministries, the highest ranked rationales are equality of opportunity, personal growth, and the maximization of educational resources. The lowest are financial considerations, diversifying the student body, and altering the quality of students.

At all three levels, individual values are given clear prominence over collective ones.

5. Most university respondents predicted no change in the use of PLA admission practices in their own institutions in the foreseeable future, but do see an increase in their use in others in Canada. In contrast, more than half the colleges predict an increase in both their own institutions and in others. Universities predict little change in advanced standing practices in their own institutions, and divide equally over increases in others. Colleges agree in predictions of increase in the use of these practices in both their own and other institutions. No one predicted that their use would diminish in the future.

The limits of space in this paper preclude more than a brief comment on implications. A fuller discussion can be found in the full report.

1. The use of prior learning assessment for admission and the granting of advanced standing in Canadian education seems generally more widespread than the rhetoric and elaborate formal admission procedures suggests.

2. Nevertheless, with the exception of Quebec, and increasingly at the secondary school level, it use appears to be perceived as aberration reserved for special cases. The applicant has no rights, and information about the availability of the procedures is minimal. In contrast to developments in the USA, the UK, and Sweden, again with the exception of Quebec no public policy or campaign seems in evidence.

3. There is little evidence of consultation among providing agencies, except at the College level, or the deliberate development of skills or knowledge with respect to the efficient utilization of these procedures. Nowhere is there an indication of plans for long-term research to test the validity of alternate procedures.

If our collective future depends upon the existence of closer links between the two systems of education, then there is a great deal to be done in Canada. If we are to make the best possible use of the learning capacities of our citizens. In the interests of individuals and of the society, then we will have to "manage" that learning better than we do. There can be no question surely that the responsibility for that development lies with those individuals and agencies entrusted with a concern for learning as a first charge on their imaginations. It is their, or our, responsibility to work out the means of the transfer of knowledge, from one domain to another. To do so we will have to go beyond our present dependence upon formal education as the single and exclusive means of managing learning.

# INDICES DE PROFESSIONNALISATION DE LA FONCTION D'EDUCATEUR D'ADULTES

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**RESUME:** La présente étude tente d'identifier les connaissances et les valeurs communes aux éducateurs d'adultes. Les résultats des analyses des principaux consensus provenant de la recherche (1960-87) indiquent qu'il existe un corpus de connaissances et un partage de valeurs autour desquels se construit la pratique professionnelle.

**ABSTRACT:** The purpose of this study is the identification of the knowledge and values shared by adult educators. Content analysis of the main researches on the competencies of adult educators (1960-87) indicates that adult education refers to a specific body of knowledge and that adult educators share common values.

**LA SITUATION:** Le débat actuel en matière de professionnalisation en éducation des adultes indique une polarisation des opinions. Au nom de l'avancement du champ d'étude, de l'affermissement du statut social, du service à assurer à la clientèle, les uns voient dans la professionnalisation la possibilité de contrer la marginalité dans laquelle ils se trouvent. Cette vision qualifiée d'élitiste par les autres, est décriée au nom de la liberté personnelle et politique de l'adulte et au non du caractère essentiellement volontaire de l'éducation permanente, liberté à laquelle s'opposerait le professionnalisme. Le débat a cours sans qu'on puisse identifier clairement les définitions réciproques du professionnalisme auxquels adhèrent les opposants. Certains écrits proposent des définitions des termes professionnalisme et professionnalisation.

L'étude du développement historique d'occupations professionnelles a permis à Wilensky (1964) d'identifier les séquences habituelles de la professionnalisation: émergence d'une occupation à plein temps, établis- sement de centres de formation spécialisée et de normes de formation, création d'une association professionnelle, agitation politique pour obtenir la connaissance légale, développement d'un code d'éthique. Prenant appui sur les séquences de professionnalisation de Wilensky, Brown (1984) indique qu'il y a des gains réalisés en matière de professionnalisme chez les éducateurs d'adultes à chaque étape mentionnée. Un examen de la situation à partir des traits communs d'une profession tels que décrits pour Goode (1966) permet également de déceler des indices de professionnalisation: les éducateurs d'adultes ont un sens d'identité, ils quittent de moins en moins la profession une fois qu'ils y sont entrés, ils partagent des valeurs quant à l'apprentissage et aux stratégies d'enseignement, ils possèdent un langage commun à caractère ésotérique. ils exercent du contrôle sur les 2e et 3e générations de praticiens (in Brown; 1984, p. 100). De plus, Goode (1964) identifie deux qualités centrales et génératives du processus de professionnalisation: un corps de connaissances abstraites de base et un idéal de service. Au-delà ou parallèlement au débat actuel en matière de professionnalisme et de professionnalisation, quelles sont les connaissances partagées par les éducateurs d'adultes et en quels termes s'exprime leur idéal de service?

**METHODOLOGIE:** Une analyse de convergences de plus de mille énoncés de compétences provenant de neuf (9) recherches sur l'éducateur d'adultes (1969 à 1981) a permis d'identifier quinze (15) compétences à fort consénsus chez les auteurs (Whissel; 1987). Un travail semblable a été effectué par Landry (1986) et Grabowsky (1981) qui ont proposé respectivement neuf (9) et dix (10) compétences-consensus. Bien que les critères qui ont présidé au choix des auteurs analysés et que le traitement méthodologique présente quelques différences, il a été jugé intéressant, pour les fins de la présente étude, de prendre appui sur ces résultats. Les compétences à fort consensus (80% - 100%) identifiées par Touchette (1981), suite à sa recherche sur les compétences de l'éducateur d'adultes québécois, complètent les données précédentes. Dans un premier temps, une analyse de contenu a permis de dégager quatre (4) catégories de compétences. Les compétences (n:43) ont ensuite été regroupées par thèmes (n:19) à l'intérieur des catégories existantes. Les énoncés qui présentaient un double niveau de compétence (ex: habileté, attitude) ont été fractionnés afin de pouvoir les insérer dans une seule catégorie et chaque compétence a reçu une cote en fonction de sa provenance (auteur), de sa catégorie et de son rang.

**RESULTATS:** Cette partie présente les énoncés sous le thème qui les représente et dans la catégorie appropriée. Une analyse fait suite à la présentation d'une catégorie d'énoncés.

**TABLEAU I**

**Compétences relatives aux connaissances théoriques:**

| **Thème** | **Enoncé-consensus (provenance)** |
|---|---|
| . Connaissances d'un contenu | "Il connaît un contenu spécifique" (L-21) |
| . Psychologie de l'adulte | "Connaître le développement psychologique de l'adulte" (W-33)<br>"Posséder des connaissances du processus d'apprentissage, de changement et sur la motivation" (L-25) |
| . Théories et méthodes de l'éducation des adultes | "Il connaît les théories de l'éducation des adultes" (G-14)<br>"Posséder des connaissances sur les théories et méthodes de l'éducation des adultes" (L-25) |
| . Domaine de l'éducation des adultes | "Connaître le domaine de l'éducation des adultes" (W-38) |
| . Milieu social | "Connaître son milieu social et s'impliquer" (W-37)<br>"Il connaît la communauté et ses besoins" (G-13) |
| . Evaluation | "Connaître les principes, les processus et les techniques d'évaluation" (W-32) |

La catégorie des connaissances théoriques regroupe 22% 9\41 des énoncés-consensus présentés dans les synthèses analysées. Les thèmes recensés montrent la place occupée par la psychologie et la sociologie en éducation des adultes indiquant la nécessaire multidisciplinarité du domaine et son caractère aussi nécessairement intégratif comme champ de pratique. La définition même de l'éducation des adultes andragogie comme "aidé à l'apprentissage de l'adulte" peut être directement mise en rapport avec les connaissances psychologiques (développement de l'adulte, processus d'apprentissage, motivation) didactiques (théories et méthodes d'enseignement) et sociologiques (connaissance du milieu et de la communauté) démontrant ainsi une forme de cohérence entre la définition et les contenus spécifiques des savoirs empruntés à d'autres domaines. Il en va de même pour les thèmes connaissance d'un contenu et évaluation qui rappellent que l'éducation des adultes en tant que champ de pratique a à intégrer divers objets d'étude et des fonctions éducatives diversifiées. Quand au thème théories en éducation des adultes, il réfère à l'ensemble des concepts, des idées, des postulats à partir desquels s'élabore les pratiques et qu'enrichissent ces mêmes pratiques. En tant que lieu d'application des savoirs, l'éducation des adultes ne peut aspirer à l'élaboration de théories scientifiques (établissement de lois et de normes qui prédisent les phénomènes) mais les consensus dégagés indiquent la présence d'un référentiel théorique logique en raison de ses finalités. Les considérations qui précèdent peuvent être mises en rapport avec des éléments caractéristiques des professions: l'existence d'un corpus spécifique de connaissances (Brown, 1984) et l'existence d'un corps de connaissances abstraites de base (Goode, 1966), d'où la nécessité d'études avancées dans le domaine (Wilensky, 1964).

**TABLEAU II**

**Compétences relatives aux habilités professionnelles:**

| **Thème** | **Enoncé-consensus (provenance)** |
|---|---|
| . Design éducatif | "Il sait organiser une situation d'apprentissage" (L-23) |
| | "Créer des conditions qui favorisent l'apprentissage" (W-29) |
| | "Planifier et\ou organiser des activités d'apprentissage" (W-27) |
| | "Localiser le matériel éducatif" (G-10) |
| | "Soit utiliser des méthodes et des techniques d'enseignement" (G-12) |
| | "Maîtriser des techniques, méthodes et stratégies d'apprentissage" (W-20) |
| | "Savoir appliquer les principes, les processus et les techniques d'évaluation" (W-32) |
| | "Capable d'évaluer et juger les activités d'un programme" (G-7) |
| . Apprentissage\ Enseignement | "Se préoccuper autant d'apprendre à apprendre que de transmettre des connaissances" (T-1) |
| . Communication | "Il possède des méthodes de communication et d'écoute" (G-11) |
| | "Sait communiquer efficacement" (L-24) |
| | "Posséder des habiletés de communication" (W-30) |
| . Animation | "Sait animer le travail de groupe" (L-22) |
| . Créativité | "Utilise sa créativité dans le développement d'activités" (L-20) |
| | "Imagination et créativité dans son domaine" (T-3) |
| . Individualisation | "Comprendre et considérer la motivation de l'apprenant" (G-16) |
| | "Répondre aux besoins des apprenants" (G-15) |
| | "Connaître l'apprenant adulte et ses besoins" (W-36) |
| | "Amener l'apprenant à suivre un cheminement propre" (G-9) |
| | "L'aide à apporter aux adultes pour leur permettre de progresser dans leurs objectifs de réalisation de soi, d'amélioration des relations humaines, d'éfficacité économique et de responsabilité civique" (T-4) |
| . Consultation | "Agir comme consultant, guide et expert" (G-39) |
| . Administration | "Savoir s'acquitter des tâches administratives" (W-40) |
| . Esprit critique | "Développer un esprit critique" (W-34) |

Cette catégorie représente 56% (23\41) de l'ensemble des énoncés-consensus. Elle contient des habiletés de divers ordres: instrumental (design éducatif,, administration, consultation) relationnel (communication, animation) et cognitif (créativité, esprit critique). Les ordres d'habiletés renvoient à la polyvalence de la fonction d'éducateur et à la polyvalence des fonctions professionnelles dans le domaine. Le plus grand nombre d'énoncés-consensus se trouvent sous les thèmes design éducatif et individualisation. Alors que le premier thème présente des habiletés fonctionnelles (planifier, appliquer, évaluer) le second indique une orientation éducative (approche centrée sur les besoins de l'apprenant). Le thème de l'individualisation renvoie à une approche centrée sur la personne comme référent théorique et indiquerait une option professionnelle claire au niveau de l'art d'exercer et, partant, au niveau de l'identité professionnelle. Cet élément peut également être mis en rapport avec la relation privilégiée du professionnel avec son client comme élément caractéristique du professionnalisme. De la même manière, le thème de l'apprentissage \enseignement indique une orientation spécifique où l'objet et le processus d'apprentissage se trouvent à revêtir une égale considération. Les recherches théoriques actuelles sur l'"apprendre à apprendre" et la métacognition dans l'apprentissage adulte (Lefebvre-Pinard, Maudsley) s'inscrivent dans la logique des orientations pratiques qui précèdent en plus d'indiquer une recherche de spécifité au niveau des savoirs théoriques. Certaines caractéristiques du professionnalisme tels l'utilisation de la recherche en vue de l'augmentation des savoirs théoriques et la relation unique au client comme idéal de service se placent en lien direct avec les énoncés présentés.

**TABLEAU III**

**Compétences relatives aux attitudes professionnelles:**

| **Thème** | **Enoncé-consensus (provenance)** |
|---|---|
| • Réceptivité | "Il a l'esprit ouvert" (G-9)<br>"Il sait faire preuve de réceptivité" (L-17)<br>"Réceptivité aux idées et expériences des autres" (T-6) |
| • Respect | "Respect et acceptation des autres tels qu'ils sont" (T-2)<br>"Respecter les différences individuelles" (W-31)<br>Respect des besoins fondamentaux des adultes en vue de leur perfectionnement" (T-5) |
| • Confiance | "Il croit au potentiel de croissance de chaque individu" (L-18) |
| • Connaissance de soi | "Se connaître et s'améliorer" (W-35) |

Cette catégorie renferme 19% des énoncés (8\41). Les attitudes et les valeurs qu'elle contient revêtent de l'importance en termes de professionnalisation en ce qu'elles caractérisent la culture professionnelle et représentent habituellement les premiers indices autour desquels se construit l'identité professionnelle. Les éléments culturels qui font consensus dans l'exercice de la fonction d'éducateur d'adultes renvoient à la capacité de leadership démocratique: réceptivité, respect, ouverture, confiance. Cette vision particulière du rôle à assumer s'inscrit dans la logique de la manière d'exercer la fonction (ie. individualisation - Tableau II) et des connaissances théoriques à posséder (psychologie de l'adulte, milieu social - Tableau I). En lien avec les caractéristiques d'une profession, les attitudes mentionnées indiquent qu'il existerait un partage de valeurs quant à l'apprentissage et aux stratégies d'enseignement (Brown, 1984).

**TABLEAU IV**

**Compétences relatives à l'implication professionnelle:**

| **Thème** | **Enoncé-consensus (provenance)** |
|---|---|
| . Intérêt professionnel | "Il a un intérêt marqué pour l'éducation des adultes" (L-19) |
| . Responsabilité professionnelle | "Connaître et respecter son rôle et ses responsabilités comme éducateur d'adultes et membre de la société" (W-26)<br>"Poursuivre sa propre formation" (G-8) |

Les énoncés de cette catégorie sont dans le sens de l'identité professionnelle (connaissance de son rôle et du champ de pratique), processus d'identification préalable à toute démarche de reconnaissance sociale et légale.

**CONCLUSION:** L'examen des consensus dégagés des recherches indique l'existence de qualités centrales et génératives au plan de la professionnalisation: l'existence d'un référentiel théorique de base et d'un idéal de service dans l'accomplissement du rôle. Eventuellement, la recherche en matière de professionnalisation devrait permettre d'indiquer dans quelle mesure les éducateurs d'adultes adhèrent au profil d'exercice professionnel qui se dégage des recherches antérieures.

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# PAINTERS AS PREDECESSORS
## Art and the moral education of adults in the Netherlands*

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### Abstract/Résumé

In a historical account, the significance of Dutch painters for the moral education of adults is examined. It appears that, for a long time, these painters played a role in transmitting educational messages to a relatively broad audience. As such they can be regarded as predecessors of those who are now active in the field of informal distance education.

Le rôle des peintres hollandais dans l'éducation des adultes est ici analysée sous l'angle historique. En effet, pendant plusieurs siècles, ces peintres ont transmis à une audience relativement large des messages à caractère moral. Ils furent en somme des prédecesseurs de ceux qui travaillent aujourd'hui dans le domaine de l'éducation informelle à distance.

### 1. The rise of the moral story

During the Middle Ages, art was not seen in Europe as an autonomous object of beauty; it was largely applied art. According to the Dutch historian Huizinga (1941: 365), in that period "A work of art has always a specific purpose for daily life, it has a practical destination". The plastic arts were used to support faith in an age of mass illiteracy. In an unquestionably educational manner, attempts were made to bridge three main obstacles: the 'ruditas simplicium' (rudeness of the simple-minded), the 'tarditas affectus' (slowness of feeling), and the 'labilitas memoriae' (weakness of memory) (Fuchs & Rijnders, 1982: 9).

Until the fifteenth century, art fulfilled this function in the form of a reflection, sanctified through tradition, of the supernatural world. In this way a piece of art became a symbol of eternal truth. Painters followed the Byzantine example with which they had gained familiarity as a result of the Crusades (Gombrich, 1983: 133). After 1400, the situation changed slowly. In the paintings of the Netherlands a modest realism broke through, accompanied by a narrative element.

Painters acquired some artistic freedom to deviate - first in details and later in composition - from traditional patterns. This did not, of course, imply a radical departure from the path that had been followed for so long. On the one hand, attention was paid to the reality of daily life for practical reasons: "because of the educational aspect, it was important to present the stories of the Old and New Testament in a persuasive and credible manner" (Fuchs & Rijnders, 1982: 15). On the other hand, the specific liturgical function of art set limits to the acquired freedom. Thus, the artist had to cope with two demands. He had "to adapt to theological and liturgical requirements, and the church wanted religious imagery to imply or express moral notions" (Fuchs, 1978: 15). Art in general. and certainly the then emerging art of painting, was used to tell a moral story by means of old symbolism and new realism. The church allotted the painter an intermediary role in the moral education of the illiterate. (1).

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* Slides of paintings and prints will be shown during the presentation of this paper. The numbers between brackets refer to the list of illustrations at the end of this text.

The humanists of the early sixteenth century can be seen as 'homines novi' (new men) who, following the example of Erasmus, wanted to educate their fellow-men to higher moral standards. The source of inspiration remained the 'philosophia christiana', although gradual emergence of a strongly developed self-consciousness had pushed faith and mystery into the background (Baelde, 1977: 65).

The influence of this humanism led to an enormous "demand for information and education, that resulted in new translations of the bible and in popular devotional literature, which in this manner became accessible for larger parts of the public" (Veldman, 1986: 13). For this purpose prints were, of course, better suited that paintings, due to their wider circulation and lower price. In addition to traditional themes, taken from the Old and the New Testament, mythological, historical, and allegorical subjects occupy a large place. As a result of the strongly emphasized narrative element, the moralizing function achieved explicit prominence. Many of these prints contain a series of "lessons for daily life, by which men could be taught the difference between good and bad behaviour" (Veldman, 1986: 17). (2). These prints can be seen as early examples of the use of a mass medium for educational purposes.

The design of these prints, however, is often rather complicated, and certainly not all of the allusions were accessible to everyone. Most artists of that period worked primarily for a then strongly emerging middle class which consisted of merchants, well-trained artisans and, of course, fellow-artists (Veldman, 1986: 16, 26, 27). Members of these three groups would eventually rise to international prestige during the Dutch Golden Age of the seventeenth century.

## 2. The apparent realism of the Golden Age

When the Englishman Peter Mundy travelled through Holland in 1640, he was impressed by the enormous demand for paintings among large sections of the population. "All in generall striving to adorne their houses, especially the outer or street rooms, with costly pieces, butchers and bakers, not much inferiour in their shoppes, which are fairly set forth, yea many tymes blacksmithes, cobblers etts., will have some picture or other by their forge and in their stalls. Such is the general notion, enclination and delight that these countrie natives have to paintings" (Rosenberg a.o., 1982: 18-19). His fellow-countryman John Evelyn who visited Rotterdam a year later, was also amazed by the great popularity of paintings. He had a surprising economic explanation for this phenomenon: "The reason of this store of pictures and their cheapnesse proceede from their want of land, to employ their stock" (Rosenberg a.o., 1982: 19). Paintings had become an investment, therefore, in a country where only little land was available, and where, furthermore, as a consequence of a revolution that was for the greater part claimed by the Calvinists, the traditional connections between the church and arts had disappeared. The works of the Dutch painters "were to be seen everywhere except in the churches" (Hauser, 1975: 321). The emphasis on paintings is understandable, moreover, in light of the fact that the Republic of the Seven United Dutch Provinces did not have a real royalty or an important aristocracy which in other countries took care of more monumental commissions.

Dutch painting in this period was pre-eminently bourgeois, the prototype being the realistic 'genre picture' in which an intimate story about everyday life is told. If one looks at these paintings more closely, however, the much praised realism is often only apparent. A moral message is hidden behind the façade (De Jongh, 1971:

143). Paintings not only served as easy to trade commodities, they were also used for 'instruction and amusement' (leeringhe ende vermaeck'); as such, they represented a time-honoured educational strategy that can be found in many proverbs, popular plays, and surely in the emblematic literature.

In its origins the emblem, comprising a combination of image and text with a deeper meaning, was a clever pastime for humanist intellectuals, and was only intended for their own pleasure. The Hungarian Sambucus, who published his 'Emblemata' in 1564 in Antwerp, did not confine himself, however, to his own circle. His goal was not the confirmation of the role of the intellectual elite in society. He strove to 'erudire et docere' (develop and teach). The emblem was used by him "to sharpen the mind, as a pedagogic medium" (Porteman, 1977: 72). In Holland, Calvinist moralists like Jacob Cats realized "how great the educational value of a concrete image together with an explicatory text could be" (Fuchs & Rijnders, 1982: 109). Their emblem-books were printed in large quantities for their time. (3).

Painters in the fifteenth and sixteenth century made use of the accepted examples of catholic doctrine. Since this was no longer possible in the Republic as a result of Calvinist pressure, their colleagues of the seventeenth century drew on the rich source of emblematic literature. (4). It would be, nonetheless, incorrect to suggest that in all cases 'instruction' was put above 'amusement'. A virtue was frequently propagated by drawing attention to a vice. Many artists used this strategy as an alibi to paint frivolous images for an eager public (De Jongh, 1976: 27-28). Scenes from brothels, for example, sold very well on the international market (Boekman, 1939: 53-54). (5).

Despite all frivolity, however, much value was attached to the virtues of obedience and loyalty to the commandments of the Scripture in the Calvinist Low Countries (De Klijn, 1982: 33). When in the eighteenth century painting was deprived of its important place in society, this opportunity to use paintings as a visual vehicle for transmitting moral messages was lost.

### 3. Towards art for art's sake

During the eighteenth century the economic and military power of England and France put an end to the expansion of the Republic of the Seven United Dutch Provinces. The bourgeoisie, now rich and notable, looked back on the glorious past with proper satisfaction, and set itself to safeguard the heritage.

Compared with the production of the seventeenth century, Dutch painting lost ground in both quantity and quality. The public was less interested in paintings, one factor in this being the preference for painted or printed wallpaper (Hoogenboom, 1985 :15). The fashionable taste of consumers also found more satisfaction in prints from England which, as a result of the fast industrial developments in that country, could be produced cheaply and in large quantities (Hoogenboom, 1985: 16). But the new elite looked to France in the first place, where an airy gracefulness in art predominated. Dutch painters learned how to adapt themselves. They stuck to the successful examples from the past, but simultaneously their art became "light and relaxed and shed the heavy, moralistic seriousness of the preceding century" (Fuchs, 1978: 144). (6).

A last-ditch attempt to provide moral education for adults through art pinned its faith on the pride of a glorious past and resulted in a wave of historical painting in the first half of the nineteenth century. The conviction that "personal virtues could turn the course of history in a better direction, led to a search for historical events that could be used as edifying examples" (Het vaderlandsch gevoel, 1978: 13). (7).

During the second part of the nineteenth century, a continually widening gap developed between many of the artists and the rest of the population. They sought or were driven to the isolation of bohemia. In accordance with the maxim of 'l'art pour l'art' (art for art's sake), independence was claimed for aesthetic values, intrinsic in a work of art which had to be free from the constraints of story-telling and the transmission of moral messages (Mayer, 1981: 20). Attention to meaning disappeared to make place for the experience of beauty as such. This movement, together with a romantic revolt against the bourgeoisie, presented the same bourgeoisie with the opportunity to isolate not only the artists themselves, but also their products which were seen to disturb the tranquility of mind of the middle class. (8). Thus, art was placed outside of the reality of daily life (Drion, 1986: 241).

The invention of photography was for the impressionists a welcome aid, but for others a dangerous competitor.(9). It led many artists to devote themselves intensively to the expression of pre-eminently individual feelings (Gombrich, 1983: 416-417). A radical breach with any form of realism or representation followed, partly because sensory perception was not judged to cover the complete field of reality, and partly because artists no longer wanted to lend themselves to the "reproduction of a wrong reality" (Jaffé, 1984: 24; Mol, 1985: 555). (10). As intermediaries, painters now disappeared almost completely from the stage. From then on they worked mainly for a small elite of art-lovers and perhaps even more for each other (Hauser, 1975: 595).

Some quite divergent efforts were still made to involve painters in the educational process. Governments in, for example, Stalinist Russia or Nazi Germany tried to safeguard their intermediary function by promoting or even ordering a 'realistic' form of art. The results were possibly a political success, but mostly an artistic failure.

According to Gerbner & Gross (1976: 175), television "serves primarily to extend and maintain rather than to alter, threaten or weaken conventional conceptions, beliefs and behaviors. Its chief cultural function is to spread and stabilize social patterns". Many disguised or undisguised attempts at the moral education of adults are to be found on the road from Peyton Place to Dallas. One can argue that the role of painters in propagating traditional standards for moral conduct through visual means has partly been taken over by makers of these popular television programs that function as a kind of informal distance education. In other words, many painters of the past can be considered as their predecessors.

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4. Johannes Vermeer, The letter: Rijksmuseum, Amsterdam.
5. Gerard ter Borch, A company in a room: Rijksmuseum, Amsterdam.
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8. Vincent van Gogh, Selfportrait: Stedelijk Museum, Amsterdam.
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# WOMEN, ENGINEERING, AND SOCIAL CHANGE

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Abstract: Will attracting increasing numbers of women to engineering affect social change both within engineering as a profession and within the larger society? This article discusses evidence from a recent study of female engineers which addresses this question.

Resumé: La présence toujours plus nombreuse de femmes-ingénieurs apportera-t-elle des changements d'ordre social dans l'ingénierie aussi bien que dans la societé en général? Cet article analyse les résultats d'une enquête récente faite, à ce sujet, sur les femmes-ingénieurs.

## Introduction:

What are the prospects that attracting increasing numbers of women to engineering will affect social change, both within engineering as a profession and within the larger society? This article discusses evidence from a recent study of female engineers which addresses Ursula Franklin's famous question: Will Women Change Technology or will Technology Change Women? (Franklin, 1985.)

Such a question should be of prime importance to adult educators for two reasons. First, from a critical social science perspective, the increasing numbers of women in technological occupations leads one to question the extent to which the presence of feminine values or of feminists interested in social change will affect the dominant ideology of a technological occupation such as engineering which is dominated by largely masculine and instrumental values. Morrow has described critical social theory as a critique of science and technology which involves an analysis of the social psychology of domination and emancipation which can address the extent to which we become dominated psychologically through ideology associated with technology. (Morrow, 1985.) Secondly, for practitioners in adult education who have responsibility for continuing professional education, a larger presence of feminine values in technological occupations in the future could have profound effects upon the planning and execution of life-long professional education.

The study on which this article is based is an ethnographic one involving open-ended interviews and participant observation with student engineers in their fourth year at a Canadian university: 21 females; 18 males (and four female students in other years); and 21 practising female engineers, members of a Women and Engineer Association in a Canadian city. The interviews were conducted in the winter and spring of 1988.

The discussion in this article is based upon themes relevant to the questions of social change which will have an impact upon Canadian social institutions: educational institutions; professional institutions; and institutions of the work-place and family. The women are seen responding to at least three specific events which were occurring during the interview period: a meeting of the Dean with the female engineering students in a faculty of engineering; reactions of the female students to "Engineering (Queen) Week"; and a meeting between the Dean and the Indian Student Association in which complaints of racism by the latter were made with respect to engineering week activities.

The responses of the female students to such events may be viewed as aspects of a larger human quest: the need to find a sense of community and belonging. Such a quest is of lesser concern to the male students because they tend to take for granted the largely male culture in which they find themselves immersed in engineering. As Franklin has so astutely observed, women in engineering are metaphorically similar to new immigrants with respect to their socialization experiences: both groups in order to be accepted into their new "countries" adopt the values and norms of the new territory and understand that their acceptance depends upon a minimal questioning of those values and norms. (Franklin, 1985.)

While there are indeed women in this study who do seem to accept many of the norms associated with engineering in a relatively unquestioning and unreflective way, a considerable number of them were found to be questioning those norms particularly as they involved questions of gender. They may be found questioning queen week activities, sexist posters in their homerooms, the exclusionary language of their professors, and the power dynamics of fellow male students who try to silence them; some also are seen to be questioning the existing ethical and professional attitudes they see being promulgated within the school environment.

For a considerable number of the female students, a great deal of emotional energy seems to have gone into coping with the stress generated from trying to resolve negative experiences involving gender questions. Undoubtedly some of that stress arises from the denial of others (both female and male) that such experiences were really discriminatory or events important for professional development. The lack of an educational forum in which such issues as well as related social ones could be discussed within a curriculum makes it difficult for such issues to be aired.

The importance of their experiences and how they felt about them and opportunities to reflect upon them seem invaluable for the women. While the female students were able to understand their own experiences, they were less able to "put themselves in the shoes of others", that is to understand the viewpoint of others, a perspective which some authors refer to as "connected" thinking (Belenky et. al., 1986). For example, while many of the women were able to identify "sexist" aspects of queen week, few of them were able to empathize with those Indians who complained of the "racist" aspect of queen week. (By the same token, to the best of my knowledge, none of the Indians also complained about some posters being blatantly sexist as well as racist toward Indian women.) In this respect, it seems likely that "separated" type of thinking dominates in technological education and is not in balance with "connected" type of thinking. These two types of thinking have been presented as theoretical models of the procedural type of thinking by Belenky and her colleagues. (Belenky, et. al., 1986.)

Belenky and co-authors have excited and revolutionalized the way that educators can understand epistemological questions about knowledge and allows researchers to now include "women's ways of knowing" into educational research on learning; undoubtedly, these perspectives also will be found to be the ways of knowing for many men as well. Five ways of knowing have been identified: silence; received knowledge; subjective knowledge; procedural knowledge; and constructed knowledge. In their discussion, the authors see "procedural knowledge", the fourth way of knowing in which learning is experienced as involving objective procedures for obtaining and communicating knowledge, as what currently occurs in educational institutions. (Little encouragement is given in institutions to the task of "constructed knowledge" which involves an integration of the subjective with the objective ways of knowing).

Within the fourth way of knowing, that of procedural knowledge, two objective procedures for obtaining and communicating knowledge are suggested: "separated" knowing and "connected" knowing. Separated knowing involves a public language and takes a critical and impersonal stance toward the object of inquiry. Connected knowledge is also objective but learning occurs through empathy and involves feeling and "putting one's self in the shoes of others" and hence is connected to relationships. In this study one senses the lack of balance in the socialization of the engineers between these two objective ways of knowing, an imbalance in which separated knowing dominates.

On the one hand, the male engineers take for granted their own male relationship membership while the women sense their need for relationships. Because the engineering curriculum traditionally does not appear to be concerned about connected knowing, it provides little experience in viewing how others might view issues such as environment, land claim issues, nuclear disarmament, and racial and gender issues, all of which involve experience with connected thinking.

A better balance between separated and connected ways of knowing in professional socialization seems important in order to lay the foundation for a social change in which women are full partners and contributors for structuring technological changes, designs and practices which improve life for all human beings and not just selected elites.

The perspectives of the women will now be examined in more detail as they were projected in response to several events: special treatment for female students; Queen Week; and the concerns of the Indian Student Association.

## Special Treatment for Female Students

The Dean of Engineering called a special meeting of all of the female students in the faculty just before the interviewing began. The purpose of the meeting was to ascertain whether the faculty could provide facilities or support service for women engineering students in order to counter-act charges outside the faculty and within the larger community that the faculty did not treat women well.

The female students almost unanimously responded against special treatment. Their anxiety with respect to special treatment in the faculty relates to a similar anxiety others also felt about affirmative action (equity policies) in the work-place. In both settings, the anxiety is indicative of the extent to which systemic discrimination on the basis of gender does indeed permeate our institutions. One way in which individuals and institutions deal with the dark prejudicial side of their respective personalities which is often projected onto institutional life is to deny its existence. However, when its presence is confronted, a way of dealing with it is to "blame the victims." The women meeting with the Dean are intelligent and rightly so sensed the possibilities of repercussions of such well-meaning interventions upon themselves.

The female students fear two possible consequences, both stemming from systemic discrimination. First, there is the fear of ostracism and exclusion by male students, resentful of the special treatment and who are already aware that many of these women are stronger academically than they and hence already have a competitive edge.

Secondly, there is fear on the part of the women of being stripped of their hard-earned meritorious skills. They view that special treatment should it be accorded them is similar to being given a handicap in a golf game. In golf, weaker players are given a handicap which enables them to play with the stronger players. Most of these women do not see themselves as weaker or inferior to their male counterparts but quite the opposite. One students illustrates this perspective:

> We are already a minority in engineering. Pointing out the fact, "Oh, these are women. They have to be treated differently because they can't handle the real world" will make it worse. We don't need that! We are just as capable if not more so than most of the guys out there. We don't need to be treated in a special way because we can do the work just as well as anybody else!
>
> Special treatment only increases the difference, the gap that is between us... What is this gap? Well, it's just numbers and society's attitudes. There weren't a lot of doctors at the turn of the century but with the T.V. soaps it has become more acceptable. I would guess that enrollment in medicine is about 50 - 50 now. Engineering is not as far ahead as medicine. You don't see engineers everyday of your life and know what they do. So it's not as socially accepted for girls to be in engineering. It's still a male dominated field because not many people know about it. But making all these special

> things for us is not the way to make it more acceptable because the guys will be resentful.

## Queen Week

During the interviewing period, queen week occurred. Associated with this week are a number of activities all of which involve competition between the departments with points being awarded on both participation and qualities such as originality and presentation of the theme chosen by each department to represent them.

There is a range of views of the women pertaining to the value of queen week and the value of having a queen. Most of the female students particularly value this week and perhaps do so even more highly than their male counterparts because of the sense of community which the events generate. For a group sensing marginality, any event which promotes their membership in a fraternity which traditionally has been cool toward female membership is to be welcomed. Many of those advocating a week of celebration would like to see the dropping of the queen as a particularly obvious sexist symbol. For example, Z says, "The activities associated with queen week I suppose are O.K., but I never really get involved because I don't like the theme of it. I'm something of a feminist and they always have these girls who are chosen for their looks and the way they dress and I don't care for that."

## Gender and Racism

This year, the Native Students' Association complained to the Dean that the theme chosen by the chemistry department, that of "Chemanche," indicated that the theme and the posters associated with the theme were derogatory toward Indians. (One poster showed a teepee with its flap open and a slogan saying "Vote for Jane. Our queen has big teepees!")

For immigrant women who are also engineering students, gender bias is viewed as similar to racial bias and they have learned to cope with the latter by certain attitudes. T, a Chinese Canadian says with respect to sexist comments from professors, "It's something they are used to saying" and, "You can't take these things personally or you are not going to get ahead". Presumably the Indian students who complained felt they were not going to get ahead and did indeed take offense. S, another Chinese student at the top of her class has this to say:

> Do you think that the criticisms of the Indian students were valid?
> It's hard. We were the Indians and we got into trouble. Some of it was not being racist against Indians. We picked a theme, such as that on Indians, because it was quite easy to make Indian costumes. I guess a lot of posters that we made were probably quite sexist but that's how it is in engineering. Engineering is more of a male faculty and when those guys are making posters, they try to make them funny; there were a few comments that were sexist. But what the Indian Association did was to say that we made derogatory associations. They have their view. But it's hard for someone that is not in engineering, for someone that doesn't get involved in queen week to understand. I wouldn't have

> been offended if we had picked Chinese to be a theme because even when they make all these sexist comments, you know, it is all unintentional.

While S presumably has had more experience with trying to see the other person's point of view, women such as Y, a white Anglo-Saxon found greater difficulty in understanding that any perspective other than her own might be valid. Y sees the Indian students as childish and out to spoil her fun. She says:

> We were not making fun of anybody. That wasn't the point. The point was just to dress up crazy and to act silly. Just to relieve a little bit of tension. But the Indian students didn't see that point and we had to take down most of our posters. And we couldn't wear our costumes any longer, and on and on it went.
>
> Then when we wrote the students an apology letter, saying that we were sorry we did this and didn't realize it would offend anyone, they said they wouldn't accept our apology letter. It was all rather kooky. Their attitude I thought wasn't very adult, shall we say? (#9)

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# THE REALITIES OF DESIGNING AND IMPLEMENTING A STAFF DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM IN A LONG TERM CARE CENTRE: HUMAN SEXUALITY AWARENESS TRAINING.

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This paper will discuss in detail how and why one program was designed and implemented to heighten the sexuality awareness among staff of a long term care centre. The program will be discussed in terms of need, development, content, participant mix, delivery, staff response, and observations and key factors involved in its success.

Ce rapport traitera en détail comment et pourquoi un programme de sexualité a été conçu et réalisé. À partir de ce programme on veut que le personnel d'un Centre de Soins prenne conscience de la sexualité en tenant compte de facteurs suivants: les besoins, le développement, le contenu, la participation, l'élocution, la réaction du personnel, les observations généralles ainsi que des facteurs déterminants du succès de ce programme.

## INTRODUCTION

This program had many strikes against it before it even got started. The subject itself was very controversial. Sexuality and sex is seldom discussed, approached and/or dealt with because it involves very personal and religious issues. It can be personally threatening to the staff and their families. The program would be very time consuming on the part of the supervisor, the staff and the Inservice Coordinator.

An examination of the literature suggests that while there is considerable research and opinion about human sexuality education in general, there is little which addresses the special issues and concerns of staff and patients in long term care facilities.

The Dr. Vernon Fanning Extended Care Centre, which is one of five care centres within Carewest in Calgary Alberta, is a 294 bed Extended Care facility. The residents are of multiple diagnoses, and ages range from 18 to over 100 years.

Fanning has always had a fairly open attitude toward meeting personal needs. We do not have segregated units. We allow married couples to live together and provide a kingsize bed for them, if they wish. We allow singles to room together with parental approval in the case of minors. We allow some personal expression. We try not to belittle people involved in sexual activity. The unique mix is very rewarding to work with, yet complex, as staff need to be trained and experienced in dealing with all ages and stages of adolescent and adult development. Developing cohesive attitudes of the nearly 400 staff in the centre is an ongoing process and cannot come about without comprehensive education.

## IMMEDIATE NEED

An incident involving a young resident and a staff member would have been insignificant if all staff had be cognizant of and could deal "appropriately" with human relations, but instead it was blown out of proportion and became a major issue.

## DEVELOPMENT

Senior staff met on an ad hoc basis and began to come to terms with the fact that education was required for the staff in the area of sexuality awareness. The Inservice Coordinator was appointed to chair the committee. Her responsibilities involved researching the problem and potential avenues, finding resources to assist the committee, communicating the needs and resources clearly to the other managers, and providing an appropriate educational program.

As is often the case at the Fanning Centre, the entire management team (consisting of 24 department heads and nursing supervisors) assists in the development of educational projects by their willingness to participate in preliminary planning. This is found to be extremely productive in terms of developing content, direction, and support. Once the managers have had input and feel ownership, they offer greater encouragement to their staff to participate and learn.

In this situation the entire management team attended two half-day workshops on Sexuality Desensitization and Attitude and Value Clarification presented by the Sexuality Division of the Calgary Health Services. The managers responded positively and were found, by the educators, to be very cohesive.

Further needs assessment involved two separate three-hour sessions for general nursing staff. The outcome indicated that their knowledge of sexual issues and anatomy and physiology was low. Yet they were eager to learn. As a result, the following program was designed and implemented to meet the needs of our staff which inadvertently would address some of the unspoken needs of the residents.

## GOAL AND OBJECTIVES

The overall goal was to assist the staff in meeting total resident needs.
The objectives for staff were :
(1) to be conscious of one's own sexuality,
(2) to become aware of the difference between male/female roles,
(3) to acquire basic sexual anatomy and physiologic knowledge,
(4) to recognize the difference between sex, sexuality, and sensuality,
(5) to accept one's own sexual awareness,
(6) to begin to recognize that sexual needs, interest, and customs differ with individuals,
(7) to become aware that residents have sexual needs,
(8) to recognize those needs,
(9) to develop a level of comfort with sexual needs of the residents.

To avoid any element of coercion, the committee felt that it was necessary to establish a safe and voluntary climate. Two promises were clearly articulated and communicated to all staff. The first was that although sexuality education involves shifts in values or alternative viewpoints, staff were not expected to give up closely-held beliefs and values. It was made clear that respect for their own viewpoints would be maintained and valued. The second promise was that staff could declare, without prejudice, if they did not wish to assist in any physical situation with which they were uncomfortable. For example, staff sometimes hugged and kissed their residents as part of the "TLC" (tender loving care) regime, but were encouraged to do so only when they felt comfortable about it.

## METHOD OF DELIVERY

The Ad Hoc Committee decided that a sexuality awareness program could best be facilitated on one nursing unit at a time. This method was chosen because the staff were already familiar with each other, the group would always be the same (programs which are conducted for all staff have fluctuating attendance), a comfort level could be fostered more easily within a homogeneous group, the environment for learning would be familiar to all participants, and all staff were familiar with the residents who would be discussed. The particular unit was chosen because they were eager to learn and to have the program, and the supervisor had always encouraged and fostered an open communicative attitude. The staff had excellent rapport with each other, which in turn provided a comfort level for the educator. This sensitive program needs to be directed by an individual who feels comfortable with the subject and with those in the group.

The program has been facilitated four different times, each lasting three to five months. The participant mix in the first two groups consisted of female nursing staff. The following two groups included an occasional male and physio, occupational and recreational therapy staff assigned to that unit. Incorporated into the statistics of the second program was a separate small group of non-care givers which the Inservice Coordinator facilitated, and into the fourth program was a completely separate group held on the night shift for nursing staff. That class was facilitated by the night nursing supervisor. In all groups the participants were very mixed in their attitudes. Some were young and open, others were young or middle aged with set and relatively puritanical attitudes and values. Some were independent of thought, others were more dependent upon those with whom they live and associate. Three of the nursing supervisors were Canadian, one was Asian, and one was Philippine.

The first two programs were essentially identical in design. They were established around twelve sessions of basic information. The last two were increased to 18-20 sessions, incorporating requests from staff and identified and perceived educational needs of the Inservice Coordinator. As her comfort increased, so did her recognition of required information. Each class was held three times the same week so as to accommodate all of the staff on the rotating shifts. Occasionally staff were required to come in on their own time, however they were reimbursed with an equal amount of time off on another day.

## CONTENT

The original programs included sessions in the following areas: Introduction; Sex role development; Human reproduction; Male adolescence; Progress of the project; Sex, sexuality, sensuality; Female and male sexual response; Menstrual cramps; Menopause; Touch; Patient related sexuality; and Explicit films.

Additions to subsequent programs included Attitude and value clarification; Cultural aspects of sexuality; Premenstrual syndrome; Homosexuality; and Intimacy. These additions have been extremely important as they are the real issues. They liase with the educator's philosophy which is that one cannot give good care to others unless they feel good about themselves. The program validates people where they are. In discussing attitudes, values, and culture, staff have an opportunity to express themselves and view others.

## STAFF RESPONSE

All programs were evaluated with very detailed questionnaires, however due to the inexperience of the educator, correlation statistics were not done. Indications however were that a great majority of the staff found the programs to be extremely helpful in terms of increased knowledge of human anatomy and physiology, greater comfort with their own bodies, acceptance of themselves as individuals, acceptance of others for whom they are caring, greater comfort in discussing issues with each other, and greater comfort in dealing appropriately with residents who have been sexually expressive.

## IMPLICATIONS, OBSERVATIONS, AND PERCEIVED KEY FACTORS

Consideration needs to be given to ensuring the success of any such sensitive project. In addition to expertise, we were conscious that such critical "stakeholders" and gate keepers as the Administrator, Medical Director, and D.O.N. (Director of Nursing) would need to be included because of the central positions of communication and power they held within the organization. Failure to recognize the role certain positions hold can jeopardize controversial undertakings such as this. Sometimes such seemingly simple matters as interfering with shift scheduling can lead to great resistance unless the key individuals affected are involved in the decision-making at an early stage.

An unexpected outcome of this project was the insidious development of a support group among the staff where two of the projects were held. They were sharing more, giving more support to each other, and were able to relate issues more realistically.

The results of the four programs differ due to participant mix, attitudes, multicultural groups vs. North American groups, opposing views, level of cooperation of key participants, degree of previously determined group cohesiveness, and degree of willingness of the supervisor to commit herself to the program and to those staff who were uncomfortable.

The key factors determining the program's success involve high levels of cooperation, commitment, and open communication on the part of the Administration, Nursing Supervisor, Inservice Coordinator, and the staff involved. It also requires that the content and delivery of information be simple, relevant, and non-threatening.

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# STIMULATING LEARNER INTERACTION AT A DISTANCE: CHALLENGES FOR COURSE DESIGNERS

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## Abstract/Abrégé

*This paper examines some of the tasks performed in successful face-to-face learning situations and describes how the University of Saskatchewan attempted to replicate these tasks in two distance education courses using a combination of television lectures, independent learning materials and local facilitators.*

*Dans cette étude, nous examinons quelques-unes des fonctions réalisées avec succès dans le cadre de situations efficaces d'apprentissage en face-à-face. Nous décrivons comment l'université de la Saskatchewan a tenté de recréer ces fonctions lors de deux cours de téléenseignement en se servant à la fois de cours magistraux télévisés, de matériel pédagogique à utiliser individuellement et d'animateurs locaux.*

## Introduction

Within university distance education, various institutions have developed courses using different combinations of print, audiotapes, videotapes, satellite and cable television, radio, microcomputers and the telephone. A review of the research literature reveals that most teaching functions can be performed using most any one of the media. When one medium is compared to another for effectiveness of instruction in any given subject matter significant differences are seldom found. When it comes to learning, however, there is commonly more variance reported within than between media, leading to the conclusion that how a medium is used in the learning process may be more important than what medium is used. Factors that influence the quality of learning in face-to-face settings also influence the quality of learning where educational media are employed (Wong, 1987).

The purpose of this paper is to examine some of the tasks performed by instructors and students in successful face-to-face learning situations and describe how the University of Saskatchewan attempted to replicate these tasks in a distance learning project using a combination of television lectures, independent learning materials and local facilitators. The fact that the choice of media was predetermined was of some concern to the designers initially, but the team quickly focused on how the media and the human resources could be used to best effect.

## Teaching/Learning Models

The literature points to a number of communication models that are useful for identifying the instructional functions which are inherent in the teaching/learning process. Schramm (1963) proposed a linear model of communication which explains the process by which knowledge is acquired as the exchange of messages between an information source and a receiver. George Beal (1982) made a distinction between knowledge acquisition, the process of learning facts and new ideas, and knowledge use, the process of learning how those facts and new ideas can be applied in a real-world situation. In knowledge acquisition a person accumulates information. In knowledge use a person learns the skills required to use it; and makes judgments about the relative value of information accumulated. Beal identified the need for a role of "translator" to be performed to help students relate new knowledge to the context where it will be used. Rogers and Kincaid

(1981) proposed a "convergence" model of communication that emphasizes information exchange and relationships where the instructor and student reach a mutual understanding of the meaning of information in the context of its origin and of its use. These authors recognized the need for learning on the part of both instructor and student if mutual understanding is to be achieved. Interaction between instructor and student is the means they proposed to meet the need.

From the perspective of a learning theorist, Gordon Pask (1976) formulated a Conversational Theory that states that learning occurs during the "conversation" or interactive dialogue among participants in the learning process. Holmberg (1983) contended that good distance education should have the spirit and atmosphere of a good conversation between the students and the supporting organization. Students can have "real" interaction with instructors, tutors and counsellors via written and/or telephone exchanges as well as simulated interactions via pre-produced course materials. Real learning is primarily an individual activity and is attained only via an internalizing process within which conversation plays a part.

From the work of these researchers one can synthesize a three-step teaching/learning model of what occurs in a conventional class-room situation where instructor and student are face-to-face with one another: 1) Knowledge dissemination---the instructor disseminates the information to the learner; 2) the instructor assists the learner in finding contexts for understanding the information; 3) the learner incorporates the information into his perception of reality. The major task of the designers was to find the means to combine the best elements of conventional face-to-face teaching with independent study.

## The University of Saskatchewan Project

In September, 1987, the University of Saskatchewan launched an experiment in distance education by delivering two introductory university courses, English 110.6 and History 112.6, to 13 sites in the province via satellite television. In this experiment, the first step in the teaching/learning model (knowledge dissemination) was achieved via hour-long lectures televised to students who were assembled at a number of receiving centres throughout the Province. Each student was provided with a variety of print material, including textbooks and a course guide, which provided the students with an overview of the weekly television presentations, the reading and written assignments, and a number of study questions. Information was also shared in local discussion groups led by tutors whose role was to help clarify what the instructor had said in the lectures:

At the second step (knowledge translation), the students were assisted by the instructor, the local tutor and their learning peers in their search for understanding, that is, for possible contexts within which the information makes sense. This assistance was provided via the lectures, the course guide, the local discussions, the on-air interaction with the instructor, and the telephone interaction with the instructor and the tutor. The third step of the teaching/learning model (knowledge incorporation) was achieved through discussions among students and between students and tutors at the receiving centres. It was also achieved through interaction between the students and the instructor via written assignments and examinations. Monitoring of student progress and feedback to the students were done jointly by the instructor and the tutors via telephone consultations and written comments on assignments.

The format of the weekly sessions consisted of a 15-minute orientation and review, a 60-minute live television presentation, a 30-minute off-air discussion facilitated by the local tutor, a 30-minute on-air discussion with the instructor, and a 15-minute wrap-up. Dramatic vignettes, slide shows and video clips were pre-produced and incorporated into the television presentations. The students could also consult the instructors individually via toll-free telephone lines.

## Student Perception of Five Modes of Learning

As part of a three-phase evaluation of the experiment, a random 25% sample (n =90) of the students were interviewed over the telephone seven months after the beginning of the courses. A previous questionnaire survey had attempted to investigate the students' perceptions of a number of variables which are considered important for the successful implementation of this teaching/learning model. For example, the students were asked to rate the importance of the course guide, the television lectures, and the local tutor in helping them understand the content of the course Both the students and the tutors were invited to make suggestions about how the course could be improved for the second term. The purpose of the telephone interview was to obtain some demographic information about the students and to probe more intensively for the students' reaction to the five modes of learning incorporated into the design of the courses.

The students were given this question: *There are five modes by which you can get or exchange information in this course; which of these do you feel is the most important in helping you achieve your goals for success?* The five modes are: reading assignments, weekly television presentations, tutor-facilitated discussions, on-air interaction with the instructor, and individual telephone consultation. The students were asked to rank the five modes in order of importance and to comment on the reasons they ranked them the way they did. Tables one and two (English and History respectively) show the percentage of students who ranked each mode from the most important (1 on a scale of 5) to the least important.

The English and History students show some differences in their reaction to the five modes of obtaining or exchanging information about the course content. Among the English students, 40.8% ranked the reading assignments as the most important compared to 34.7% who ranked the weekly television presentations as the most important (Table 1). Among the History students, 18.2% ranked the reading assignments as the most important compared to 75.8% who ranked the weekly television presentations as the most important (Table 2). More students in English than History ranked the tutor-led discussions as the most important (16.3% vs 9.4%). While no students in the History course rated the on-air interaction with the instructor as the most important, 6.3% of the English students did so. Individual telephone consultation is a distant fifth with 75.5% of the English students and 60.6% of the History students rating it as the least important mode.

The students' comments indicate that many students feel that they can achieve the best results by using a combination of the five modes. For example, a History student commented: *"The weekly TV lectures are thorough and good. They make me feel like I'm with the instructor; I feel more like I'm getting the same thing as the students on campus. Our tutor is good; if I miss something in the lecture, he's there is explain it. The reading assignments help me to keep ahead. During the on-air interaction, I get to hear questions (from other students) that I haven't thought of. "*

On the other hand, there were some students who expressed a preference for one or more modes: *"I like the TV presentations the best and enjoyed them. I didn't fully understand the material in the texts-- it's more understandable when professor H. makes the presentation. TV makes me feel like I'm on campus. " (History student)* and *"You really need a lecture presentation, but the discussion is the one that gets me thinking." (English student)*

## Discussion

The students' description of their use of the five modes of information acquisition/exchange give some support to a common distance education belief that it is desirable to present to-be-learned material via as many learning channels as possible. In many institutions, the choice of media is constrained by financial, logistical and internal political factors. In our case, satellite television was selected before the designers were brought into play. However, the use of television technology had the positive consequence of allowing students in scattered rural centres to hear and see the best instructors available. The live interactive quality of the medium also had the added benefit of promoting a sense of belonging among our off-campus students, many of whom had previously felt like second-class citizens. Reading assignments delivered via print packages helped to offset the high cost of television, and feedback from the students indicate the they are an efficient medium for disseminating subject matter content.

Technology, in this case, served the role of agents of interaction. The task of stimulating conversation at a distance rested primarily on the human resources, the instructors and the tutors, who served as "guides" in helping the students find their way through a body of knowledge. By their mastery of television presentation and questioning techniques, the instructors were able to stimulate and maintain student interaction at a distance. In their role as local facilitators, the tutors further encouraged and assisted the students in participating in the conversation. The challenge for course designers is to combine the use of technology with the use of human resources to initiate experiences that are learner-centred.

TABLE 1

IMPORTANCE OF FIVE MODES IN HELPING STUDENTS ACHIEVE LEARNING GOALS (ENGLISH)

Percentage of Students

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Rank |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Reading Assignments | 40.8 | 20.4 | 12.2 | 20.4 | 6.1 | 1 |
| Weekly TV Presentations | 34.7 | 32.7 | 20.4 | 10.2 | 2.0 | 2 |
| Tutor-led discussions | 16.3 | 34.7 | 32.7 | 8.2 | 9.2 | 3 |
| On-Air interaction with Instructor | 6.3 | 10.4 | 31.3 | 45.8 | 6.3 | 4 |
| Individual Telephone Consultation | 2.0 | 2.0 | 4.1 | 16.3 | 75.5 | 5 |

1 = most important
5 = least important

TABLE 2

RANKING OF IMPORTANCE OF FIVE MODES IN HELPING STUDENTS ACHIEVE LEARNING GOALS (HISTORY)

Percentage of Students

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Rank |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Reading Assignments | 18.2 | 48.5 | 24.2 | 6.1 | 3.0 | 2 |
| Weekly TV Presentations | 75.8 | 15.2 | 3.0 | 6.1 | 0.0 | 1 |
| Tutor-led Discussions | 9.4 | 21.9 | 41.0 | 3.1 | 21.9 | 3 |
| On-Air Interaction with Instructor | 0.0 | 9.1 | 27.3 | 51.5 | 12.1 | 4 |
| Individual Telephone Consultation | 0.0 | 3.0 | 6.1 | 30.3 | 60.6 | 5 |

1 = most important
5 = least important

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# FACING UP TO COMPLETION RATES IN DISTANCE EDUCATION

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Abstract: There are major problems associated with the study of completion rate in distance education relating to definition, measurement and methodology. These problems must be addressed if better theoretical understanding of the factors affecting completion is to be achieved.

Des problèmes majeurs s'attachent à l'étude des pourcentages des étudiants qui mettent fin aux programmes d'éducation à distance. Ces problèmes se rapportent à la définition, aux mesures et à la méthodologie. Il faut s'attaquer aux problèmes si on veut réaliser un meilleur entendement théorique des facteurs qui influent sur l'achèvement dans l'éducation à distance.

Completion rate as it is generally understood in the field is the ratio of the number of completers over enrollees for a course or programme. Usually there is no ambiguity over the number of enrollees but there is a great deal of confusion over the number of completers as the criteria for completion differ from institution to institution. This stems from varying requirements for minimum percentage of assignment submission and grades achieved, to take and to pass test(s) and examination(s) as well as attendance of tutorials. Some institutions uses the ratio of completers over starters as the completion rate, starters meaning students who have submitted one or more assignments. So confusion over the definition of completion rate is one of the first problem associated with the study of it.

Irrespective of which of these two ratios is used, completion rate has been widely perceived to be one of the yardsticks for measuring success of distance education operation along with grades. Research in 1960's and 1970's have shown that student achievements in terms of grades were comparable to those of face-to-face students (Wong, 1987) and no doubt should be used as a criteria for determining success. On the other hand, the use of completion rate thus defined as a measure of success was based on less firm grounds. With adult students, some of them may be only interested in a particular segment of a course and 'completion' perhaps was never the goal. They may have been benefitted quite substantially from the course within their own frame of mind and at the same time quite satisfied with completion of part of a course. In these cases, completion of a course should never have been the criterion for success, but such distinctions are not normally made.

This illustrates one of the fundamental problems in the study of completion rate. It has been accepted as an outcome variable which indicates failing on the part of the institution or the student. It can be argued that completion rate is an outcome variable which only indicate whether students have completed the course. To use completion rate thus defined to study factors and processes that affect 'success' or 'failure' is inappropriate. Tinto (1975) suggested that distinction should be made between dropping out for academic and non-academic reasons, between temporary and permanent dropouts. These are important distinctions. When a student discontinue a course due to some other unexpected life commitments like job relocation in another country, the question of success does not really apply. Some would call this natural attrition, students not able to complete due to 'natural causes'. Suffice to say that completion rate and 'success' cannot be equated.

If how much students have learned from the course is the central concern, the current definition of completion rate would not be an appropriate variable to reflect this concern. All the learning and work carried out by students who did not complete the course has been ignored. A different conception of completion rate is proposed in this study based on how much work has been completed such that we can examine the completion rate of individual students and compare completion rate between groups of students. How much work students completed together with the grades for the work are much better indicators of how much students have benefitted from the course in terms of learning and at the same time a more meaningful outcome variable. Although it is still hard to claim that this would represent 'success' because it has different meanings for different students. For institutions, these outcome variables would better represent the total work or learning that has taken place and a better indicator of 'success' or 'failure'. If we can further distinguish between those students who have discontinued for reasons beyond the control of the institution, then it would be possible to assess the 'success' or 'failure' of programmes.

Given this conception of completion rate, most of the previous studies have to be interpreted in a different light. One has to bear in mind that in those studies, the amount of work or learning carried out by non-completing students, irrespective of how close to completion, had been largely ignored. In terms of measurement, completion rate is no longer a dichotomous variable with the value of complete or not completion and becomes a measure of the work completed over time, i.e. over the duration of the course.

Measurement is therefore another problem that has hindered the study of completion rate. With the current conception of completion rate, there has been numerous studies which examined the relationship between the ratio of completers over starters or enrollees for a course with a variety of independent and dependent variables. Typically the variables were student, programme (including instructional) and outcome variables. There are severe limitations with this type of study. As stated earlier, the work of non-completer had been entirely ignored. For instance, in a typical correlational studies related to previous education and completion, when 50 percent of those which did not complete have completed over 75 percent of the work, they were all categorised as non-completer. Obviously both analyses and conclusions derived from such an approach would be skewed. This was due to the fact that students were assigned to be completers or non-completers no matter how crude this must have appeared.

A few studies which examined students behaviour over time have shown that there were remarkable differences at the various stages of the course with the beginning stages being most critical. Hence it is important that measurements made should also be time based so that such differences can be noted. Unfortunately, this is not the common practice at the moment. The logical consequence of current conception of completion rate could only result in crude observations and analyses. This could be one of the reasons why many previous correlational studies have not found any outstanding difference.

Another major problem associated with the study of completion rates has to do with methodology. Most of previous quantitative studies were simple bivariate correlational studies exploring relationships between variables. Conducting this kind of study in the absence of overt conceptual framework or theories as often were the case, theory building or testing was not possible. Furthermore, there are so many variables that can affect completion rate, the chance of 'hitting' the critical variables were small. On the other hand, those studies which examined reasons students gave for dropping out failed to explore the meaning of 'insufficient time', the most frequently given reason for discontinuance since the 1950's. In short, research methodology developed in recent years both from the quantitative and qualitative approach have not been fully utilized.

Although it is true that there are not many 'theories' of distance education but there are some. Baath (1979) suggested that distance education can be viewed as a non-contiguous two-way communication process, a special case of communication theory. Peters (1983) observed that the process of distance education is akin to those of industrial production and many characteristics of industrialisation should apply to it. Moore (1986) noted the relevance of self-directed study literature to examine distance education students. With regard to completion rate, the work of researchers like Tinto (1975) with respect to dropout within the framework of conventional education also has relevance. On the other hand, there are many bodies of literature from a variety of disciplines which may also be useful in examining completion rate in the distance education setting. There is therefore no reason why investigations should be atheoretical.

In order to face up to the problem, researchers must be prepared to examine the variance in completion rate in distance education from a number of angles. It may well be there the best explanation involved a number of variables interacting together suggesting a multivariate transactional model. There is also the possibility that no single theory that would provide the best fit but a multi-branching path analysis model involving a number of theories as applied to different situations would be most fruitful. In any case, the issues of definition, measurement and methodology has to be addressed.

Distance education has an important role to play within the overall framework of provision of education to adults. In recent years, it has grown in terms of scale, sophistication, potential and importance but completion rate has generally remained low. In order to remedy the situation, better understanding of the notion of completion rate, the processes and factors affecting it are required. However, there are major problems associated with the study of it relating to definition, measurement and methodology. There is, therefore, a need for studies which are anchored in theory, be able to address the problems mentioned above such that better theoretical understanding can be achieved and more effective intervention strategies developed.

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